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## THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

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For the Month of *December*, 1778.

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*The History and Topographical Survey of the County of Kent. Illustrated with Maps and Views of Antiquities, Seats of the Nobility and Gentry, &c. By Edward Hasted, Esq. F. R. S. and S. A. Vol. I. Folio. 3l. 3s. Baldwin.*

**T**HE history and minute description of so extensive a county as that of Kent must necessarily be a work of great labour; and we find, accordingly, that the present object of our attention has afforded employment to the author during a period of twenty years. For more than half that time, however, Mr. Hasted had collected his materials solely with the view of gratifying a natural inclination for researches into antiquity; a circumstance which, while it animated his perseverance, must have greatly contributed to the accuracy and multiplicity of information so conspicuous in the work. In the prosecution of this undertaking, the historian has had access to most of the public offices of record in London, as well as to other valuable repositories; and he likewise gratefully acknowledges the having received great assistance from the kindness of several gentlemen, who favoured him with the use of private manuscripts.

Beginning with the General History, the author first treats of the etymology of the name of Kent; the situation and boundaries of the county; of the ancient inhabitants of it, and of their manners, customs, and religion; after which he delivers an account of the invasion of Britain by the Romans. He next pursues the narrative from the departure of Julius Cæsar to the final relinquishment of the island by the Romans, about the year 427; from which period he continues

VOL. XLVI. *December*, 1778.

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the detail to the establishment of the Saxons ; and thence to the Norman conquest in the year 1066. Having deduced the history to this æra he proceeds to inquire into the ancient government of England under the Britons and Saxons ; with its jurisdiction, both military and civil ; the origin of the several courts, and officers belonging to them ; the county court and sheriff's tourn ; the title and dignity of ealdorman or earl ; with an account of the several dukes and earls of Kent. The county court is at this time regularly held at the county-house on Pinenden-heath, by the clerk of the court. The business of this judicature is civil actions, for the trying of which a jury of the neighbouring residents is impanelled ; but all matters of consequence are usually removed thence to the upper courts, by writs of *recordari*. The *shyre-gemot*, or sheriff's tourn, is become entirely obsolete, not having been once held in the memory of any person now living.

The first earl of Kent, of whom the author has met with any mention in history, is Ealher, Ealcher, or Aucher, who had also the title of duke, from his being at the same time intrusted with the military power of the county. This nobleman was distinguished for his bravery in a battle with the Danes in the year 853.

The author next treats of the office of sheriff, with the names and coats of arms of such as have served it to the present time ; of the office of coroner ; of the ancient conservators, and of the modern commission of the peace. He then presents us with a list of the several noblemen and baronets of the county ; and mentions the Knights of the Royal Oak, an order which king Charles II. designed to institute at his restoration, as a reward to those who had faithfully adhered to him in his distresses. But the project was afterwards laid aside. The names of the intended knights in Kent, with the value of their estates, are mentioned.

These subjects are followed by an account of justices itinerant ; of the office of lord lieutenant, and of deputy lieutenants ; of the origin of the house of commons, with a list of knights in parliament for the county of Kent ; of the several divisions of the county of Kent into laths, hundreds, boroughs, and parishes ; of the origin of constables ; and of the several corporations and liberties in the county ; of the ecclesiastical jurisdiction of the county ; of the air, soil, natural and artificial products ; and of the several rivers, with the advantages arising to the county from them. The author afterwards describes the Weald of Kent, which he supposes to have been anciently much more extensive than at present ; and he treats of the several degrees of people in the county, with  
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their proportion of the public taxes, &c. Our author informs us, that, owing to the loyalty of many of the Kentish gentlemen when the land-tax was first imposed, the county is assessed in general at two parts out of three of the real rents; but several parishes are assessed at the full sum for which they let.

Mr. Hasted next gives a general account of the origin of property in this kingdom, and of its changes at and since the Conquest; of the establishment of feudal tenures, and the distribution of land under them; of the several sorts of tenure established, and the consequences attending them. He then delineates the socage tenures of ancient demesne and gavelkind, and the common law of Kent. Of the tenure of gavelkind the author gives the following account.

• Lands in gavelkind descend to all the sons alike in equal portions; and if there are no sons, then equally among the daughters; and as to the chattels, it was formerly part of the custom of this country to divide them, after the funeral and the debts of the deceased were discharged, into three parts, if he left any lawful issue behind him; of which three, one portion was to the dead, for the performance of legacies; another to his children, for education; and a third to the wife, for her support and maintenance\*.

• Furthermore. If the tenant of gavelkind lands withdraws from his lord his due rents and services, the custom of this county gives the lord a special and solemn kind of *cessavit*, called *gavelslet*; by which, unless the tenant redeems his lands by payment of the arrearages, and makes reasonable amends for withholding the same, they become forfeited to the lord; and he enters into them and occupies them as his own demesnes.

• The tenants in gavelkind in this county claim the privilege, that where a writ of right is brought concerning gavelkind lands, that the grand assise shall not be chosen in the usual manner by four knights, but by four tenants in gavelkind: who shall not associate to themselves twelve knights, but that number of tenants in gavelkind: and further, that trial by battle shall not be allowed in such a writ for these lands†.

• There were some other privileges relating to gavelkind lands, which are now obsolete; such as their exemption from

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• • If he had no children, then the division was in two parts only; one of which belonged to the wife for her endowment, and the other for the deceased, to be disposed of by his executors, or, if he died intestate, by the ordinary, Lamb. Peramb. p. 622.

† Notwithstanding this claim, one of the last instances in our books, of battle joined in a writ of right, was between Lowe and Paramour, for lands in Harty, which were gavelkind. The pompous account of the ceremony, preparatory to the combat, is worth reading. See Coke's Ent. p. 182. and Speed's Chron. p. 1166.

erving on juries in attainments †; that no man should have common in lands of that nature; the privilege of driving off cattle found damage fasant on gavelkind lands; and also a custom peculiar to the Weald, that the lords, of whom the drovedennes were holden in gavelkind, should have all the great oaks, ash, and beech growing there, together with the pannage thereof, and the tenants only the underwood, or at most the oak, ash, and beech under forty years growth §.

Among the privileges formerly claimed by Kentishmen, was that of being placed in the vanguard of the army; an honour which seems to have been granted them on account of their gallant behaviour in the encounters with the Danes.

Another division of the work contains an account of the regular and secular clergy in England; of the monasteries and other religious foundations in the county of Kent; their dissolution, and value at the time of it; with some observations on those subjects; to all which is subjoined an account of the ancient Survey of England, called Domesday-book.

Having treated of the general history of Kent, Mr. Hasted proceeds to the description of the several laths, hundreds, and parishes in the county; and he sets out on his survey from the western part of it, at Deptford. This place, he informs us, received its name from the deep ford over the river Ravensborne, before the bridge was erected; being generally known in ancient records by the name of Deptford Strond, or West Greenwich. The manor of Deptford was given by William the Conqueror to Gilbert de Magminot, one of his chief captains and favourites, who erected on it a castle, which has long since been in ruins; though some remains of the foundations have been discovered near Sayes-court in Bromfield, on the bank of the Thames, towards the mast-dock. In this town is an old house, called the moated place, stone-house, or king John's-house, from that king's having been supposed the builder of it. But whatever may be the authority for that conjecture, the place has been frequently honoured with the residence of the kings of England, particularly of Edward III. and IV. Here stands the Trinity house, the society of which was founded in the reign of Henry VIII. by sir Thomas Spert, for the encouragement of navigation. The master, wardens, assistants, and elder brethren, are by charter invested with the following powers.

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† This is taken away by statute 18 Hen. VI.

§ There remains no footing of this right at this day, this claim being given up by the lords by their agreement with their tenants in the time of Edward III. and Richard II.

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‘ 1. That of examining the mathematical children of Christ’s Hospital.

‘ 2. The examination of the masters of his majesty’s ships; the appointing pilots to take charge, as well of the ships of the royal navy, as merchant ships; and the amercing of such as shall presume to act as master of a ship of war, or as a pilot, without their licence in a pecuniary mulct.

‘ 3. The settling the several rates of pilotage, and the erecting and maintaining light-houses, buoys, and beacons, and other sea-marks, upon the several coasts of the kingdom, and in the mouth of the river Thames, with licence to alter and shift the same, as there may be occasion, from time to time, for the good of navigation, and the better security of ships, according to act of the 8th of queen Elizabeth. To which end, the brethren frequently survey the north and south channels leading to the river Thames, as well to observe the alteration and increase of all lands and shoals, as to place buoys, and other sea-marks, for the direction of mariners who pass the same; to which all ships pay one halfpenny per ton.

‘ 4. The granting licences to poor seamen, not free of the city, to row on the river Thames for their support in the intervals of sea-service, or when past going to sea.

‘ 5. The preventing aliens from serving on board English ships, without their licence, upon the penalty of 5l. for each offence.

‘ 6. The hearing and determining the complaints of officers and seamen in the merchants service; but subject to an appeal to the lords of the admiralty, or the judge of the court of admiralty.

‘ To this corporation belongs the ballast-office, for clearing and deepening the river Thames, by taking from thence a sufficient quantity of ballast, for the supply of all ships that sail out of it. In which service sixty barges, with two men in each, are constantly employed; and all ships, that take in ballast, pay them one shilling a ton; for which it is brought to the ship’s sides.

‘ After the maintenance of their light-houses, and other necessary expences of the corporation, the remainder of their revenue is applied wholly to the relief of poor decayed seamen, their widows, and orphans, and none other: and of these there are relieved by them about 3000, at the expence of about 6000l. by yearly, monthly, or by other temporary charities, more or less, according to their necessities.

‘ The benefits and revenues to support these charities, arise from light-money, buoys, beconage, ballastage, and from the benefaction of the brethren and others, which are contingent.

‘ Lastly, in consideration of their weighty and necessary service to the public, and that their ships and servants are to be at his majesty’s call, they have several privileges, immunities, and exemptions granted to them from time to time; such as the not serving upon juries and inquests, and such like burdens, which

others are subject to. And this favor is alike to all the brethren, both elder and younger, their officers and servants.'

Greenwich, anciently called East Greenwich, Mr. Hasted informs us was only a fishing town so late as the reign of Henry V. but had long been famous for the safe road which the river there afforded for the shipping. In the reign of Ethelred, the whole Danish fleet lay in this road three or four years, while the army was for the most part encamped on the hill above the town; where, at the south-west corner of Greenwich-park, are several barrows, supposed to be the burial-places of some of the Danes, who died during their encampment here.

It appears from the following narrative, copied from the work, that the town of Eltham, which had a royal palace, was often the residence of the kings, and the scene of many a festivity.

'The king's house, or Eltham palace, was built, most probably, on part of those premises, which were granted by king Edward I. in his ninth year, to John de Vesci, and perhaps on the very scite of the house where king Henry III. in his 55th year, anno 1270, kept his Christmas publicly, according to the custom of those times, being accompanied by the queen and all the great men of the realm,

'In the next reign of king Edw. I. Anthony Beke, bishop of Durham, in whom the lands and possessions of Vesci in Eltham were then vested, after reserving to himself an estate for life, granted the reversion of Eltham house, with its appurtenances to the crown. He died here March 3, anno 4 king Edw. II. 1310, after having bestowed great cost on his buildings at this place.

'The bishop of Durham being dead, king Edward II. kept his residence here; where, in his 9th year, anno 1315, his queen was delivered of a son, called, from the place of his birth, John of Eltham.

'King Edward III. in his 4th year, anno 1329, called a parliament to meet at Eltham; and in his 38th year, intending to give a princely reception to king John of France, who had been his prisoner in England, and then came over to visit him, received him at Eltham, where he entertained him with great magnificence. King Edward III. again held a parliament here in his 50th year, anno 1375; when the lords and commons attended with a petition, among other matters, to make his grandson, Richard of Bourdeaux, son and heir of Edward, late prince of Wales, and heir apparent of the realm, prince of Wales.

'Leonel, third son of king Edward III. and guardian of the realm, (the king being at that time carrying on his wars in France,) kept his Christmas here, in the 20th year of that reign, anno 1347.

' King

\* King Richard II. resided much at this manor of Eltham, taking great delight in the pleasantness of the place. In the 10th year of whose reign, anno 1386, the king, with his queen, and court, keeping their Christmas here with much festivity, received Leo, king of Armenia, who had been driven out of his dominions by the Turks, and entertained him sumptuously here.

\* King Henry IV. resided much here, where he kept his last Christmas; and being taken sick, was carried to London, where he soon after died in the year 1412.

\* His son and successor, king Henry V. in his 3d year, anno 1414, lay here, with a design of keeping his Christmas with much feasting; but was forced to leave the place abruptly, on the discovery of a plot, in which some had conspired to murder him,

\* King Henry VI. made it his principal place of residence, keeping his Christmas royally here, with much splendor and feasting in his 8th year, anno 1429. In his 17th year, he renewed, by charter to the tenants of his manor of Eltham, their market, with large additional privileges, as may be seen in the original record of that year, in the tower of London.

\* King Edward IV. repaired this house with much cost, and inclosed Horne-park, so called from its being the scite of the manor of Horne, which was antiently the king's demesne, as appears by the grant of king Edward III. in his 21st year, to all his tenants of this manor to be toll-free throughout England.

\* Bridget, this king's 4th daughter, was born here, in the 20th year of his reign, anno 1480, and the next day was baptized in the chapel here, by the bishop of Chichester. She afterwards became a nun at Dartford, in this county.

\* Two years afterwards, anno 1482, that king kept a splendid Christmas here, with great feasting; 2000 people being fed, at his expence, every day.

\* King Henry VII. built a handsome front to this palace, towards the moat, and was usually resident here, and, as appears by a record in the office of arms, most commonly dined in the great hall of this place, and all his officers kept their table in it.

\* King Henry VIII. neglecting this palace, built much at Greenwich, though he sometimes resided here, particularly in his 7th year, anno 1515; when keeping his Whitsuntide at Eltham, he created sir Edward Stanley, knight, for his good services performed against the Scots, at Flodden-field, lord Montague; at which time, by reason of some infection then reigning in London, none were permitted to dine in the king's-hall, but the officers of arms, who, at the serving in the king's second course of meat, according to custom, came and proclaimed the king's stile, and then that of the new lord.

\* The king kept his Christmas royally here, with balls and much feasting that year, as he did again in 1527; yet, being

more pleased with his neighbouring palace of Greenwich, he neglected this more and more; so that in a few years it was, in a manner, totally deserted by the royal family.'

Shooters-hill, it appears, has also been honoured with royal visitants. Hither came king Henry VIII. and his queen Catherine, in great splendor, from Greenwich, on May-day. They were received by two hundred archers, all clad in green, with one personating Robin Hood, as their captain. After the archers had exhibited their skill in shooting, the king and queen, with their attendants, were led into the wood, where they were sumptuously entertained in green arbours and booths, which were richly decorated according to the fashion of those times.

In the account of Otford we meet with an extraordinary instance of prelatical riches and magnificence. The archbishops of Canterbury had, from time immemorial, a house or palace at this place, where they occasionally resided. Archbishop Deane, who came to the see in the sixteenth year of Henry VII. rebuilt great part of the edifice; but his immediate successor, archbishop Warham, thinking the house too mean for him, rebuilt the whole, except the hall and chapel, at the expence of no less than thirty-three thousand pounds; a prodigious sum in those times! Of this costly structure there now remains only a wall and two towers.

The following narrative of the munificence of Henry Smith, esq. an alderman of London, who had purchased of the earl of Dorset several estates in the county of Kent, affords a striking contrast to the archiepiscopal vanity mentioned in the preceding paragraph.

'Henry Smith, esq. being possessed of a very considerable estate, both in lands and money, gave large sums to charitable uses in his life-time, and in 1620, conveyed several of his estates, among which were those in Sevenoke, Kemsing, and Seale, to Robert, earl of Essex, Richard, earl of Dorset, and others, in whom he likewise vested his large personal property in trust, to pay him 500l. towards his maintenance and livelihood, and the residue in such manner as he should, by writing or will, appoint to such charitable uses, for relief of poor prisoners, hurt and maimed soldiers, poor maids marriages, setting up poor apprentices, amending of highways, losses by fire, or shipwreck, or otherwise, as his trustees should think most convenient. After which, being dissatisfied with the conduct of some of his trustees, he filed a bill in chancery, to obtain the disposition of his estates during his life, and to have the appointment of the charitable uses to which it should be applied after his decease. This was agreed accordingly in 1625, and further, that conveyances should be executed to new trustees; which trust should from time to time

be filled up by the nomination of the archbishop of Canterbury, and the lord chancellor, or lord-keeper of the great seal for the time being.

‘ In 1626, he executed another deed, by which he did not appoint his estates to the use of any particular persons or parishes, but directed, that the rents, to be bestowed for the yearly relief of the poor of any parish, or for the marriage of poor maids, or putting forth poor children to be apprentices, should yearly be received by the church-wardens and overseers of the poor of such parishes, who should give bond to the parson or vicar of such parish, for the faithful distribution thereof. And he directed, that the same should be given for the relief of poor, aged, or infirm people; married persons having more children, born in wedlock, than their labour could maintain; poor orphans; such poor people as keep themselves and families to labour, and put forth their children apprentices at the age of 15; and not to the relief of any persons given to excessive drinking, whoremongers, common swearers, pilferers, or otherwise notoriously scandalous; or to any persons that had been incorrigible or disobedient to those, whose servants they had been; or to any vagrant persons, or to such as had no constant dwelling, or received any inmate or inmates to dwell in the house with them, or had not inhabited in that parish five years next before the distribution, or, being able, refused to work and take pains.

‘ He farther directed that the churchwardens and overseers should, between Easter and Whitsuntide yearly, enter in a book an account of the disposition of the money, which should be read in the church, and a copy fixed up there, that the same might be seen, and exceptions reformed.

‘ By his last will, dated April 24, 1627, he gave some directions as to part of his estates; but left the bulk of it, among which were the manors of Sevenoke, Kemsing, Seale, and Knole, and the capital mansion of Knole, with the park and lands belonging to it to the disposition of his trustees.

‘ He died the 30th of January following, being then near 70 years of age, and was buried at Wandsworth in Surry, where he was born.

‘ In 1641, the earl of Essex, and other the then surviving trustees, by deed inrolled in chancery allotted the rent of Knole manor, house, and park then let to the earl of Dorset at 100l. per annum, to be yearly distributed to five several parishes in Surry; and the rents of certain woods there, then let to that earl, at 30l. per annum, to be distributed to 17 other parishes in that county; and the manors of Sevenoke, Kemping, and Seale, and the lands thereto belonging, being of the yearly value of 100l. per annum, as then let to the earl of Dorset, to 12 other parishes in the said county of Surry.

‘ There are other very considerable estates in other counties, under the management of this trust, which has been several times renewed and filled up with gentlemen of rank and fortune,  
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mostly of the county of Surry, where the rents of the chief parts of the estates are distributed; every parish in that county, except four or five, having some share, though many other parishes in other counties likewise partake of this bounty.

‘ The manor of Sevenoke, still remains vested in this trust for the above purposes; but the possession of it has been from time to time demised by leases for three lives to the successive earls and dukes of Dorset; the present lessee of it being his grace, John, duke of Dorset.

‘ But the fee simple of the manor, mansion, and park of Knole, with the lands, woods, and appurtenances belonging to it, were, by the said trustees, in the 13th year of king Charles II. vested in Richard, earl of Dorset, nephew of earl Richard, who had alienated them, and his heirs, in consideration of a perpetual clear yearly rent charge of 130l. in lieu of them, issuing out of certain estates of the said earl's, in Bexhill and Cowding in the county of Sussex, to be applied by the trustees in the same manner as the rents of the said manor, house, and park, &c. which sale was confirmed by an act of parliament passed that year. Since which these premises have continued in the descendants of the earl of Dorset, to his grace John Sackville, duke of Dorset, the present possessor of them, who makes this place the constant seat of his residence.’

From the petition presented to parliament in the time of Richard II. for the revocation of the judgement of exile passed against Hugh le Despencer, it appears that this personage was possessed of the following various properties; viz. fifty-nine lordships in different counties, twenty-eight thousand sheep, a thousand oxen and steers, twelve hundred kine with their calves, forty mares with their colts of two years, a hundred and sixty draft horses, two thousand hogs, three thousand bullocks, forty tuns of wine, six hundred bacons, eighty carcases of Martinmass beef, six hundred muttons in his larder, ten tuns of cyder, armour, plate, jewels, and ready money, ten thousand pounds, thirty-six sacks of wool, and (what was considered of no small value in those times) a library of books.

Some remarkable occurrences in the parish of Westerham deserve to be mentioned.

‘ In the year 1596, the following astonishing scene happened in this parish, in two closes, separated from each other only by a hedge, about a mile and a half southward from the town, not far from the east side of the common highway, called Ockham hill, leading from London towards Buckhurst in Sussex: when, on Dec. 18, a part of them, containing 12 perches long, was found to be sunk six feet and a half deep; the next morning 16 feet more; the third morning 80 feet more at the least; and so from

from day to day. This great trench of ground, containing in length 80 perches, and in breadth 28, began, with the hedges and trees thereon, to loose itself from the rest of the ground lying round about it, and therewithal to move, slide, and shoot southward, day and night, for the space of 11 days. The ground of two water-pits, the one having 6 feet depth of water, and the other 12 feet at the least, and about 4 perches over in breadth, having sundry tufts of alders and ashes growing in their bottoms, with a great rock of stone underneath, were not only removed out of their places, and carried southward 4 perches a-piece at the least, but withal mounted aloft, and became hills, with their sedge, flags, and black mud upon the tops of them, higher than the face of the water, which they had forsaken, by 9 feet; and in the place from which they had been removed, other ground, which lay higher, had descended, and received the water on it. In one place of the plain field there was a great hole made, by the sinking of the earth 30 feet deep, in breadth, in some places, 2 perches over, and in length 5 or 6 perches. A hedge, with its trees, of 30 perches long was carried southward 7 perches at least: and there were several other sinkings of the earth, in different places, of 65 feet, 47 feet, and 34 feet: by which means, where the highest hills had been, there were the deepest vales; and where the lowest dales were before, there was the highest ground.

The whole measure of the breaking ground was at least nine acres, seven days works, and four perches. The eye-witnesses to the truth of the above were Robert Bostocke, esq. justice of the peace; sir John Studley, vicar; John Dawling, gent. and many others of the neighbourhood.

In the spring of the year 1756, at Toys-hill, about a mile and a half eastward from the above, a like circumstance was observed, in a field of two acres and an half of ground, the situation of which was on the side of a hill, inclining towards the south; the land of which kept moving, imperceptibly indeed, till the effect appeared, for some time; by which means the upper, or northern side was sunk two or three feet, and became full of clefts and chasms, some only a foot deep, others as large as ponds, six or eight feet deep, and 10 or 12 feet square, and most of them filled with water. Part of a hedge moved about three rods southward, and though straight before, then formed an angle with its two ends. Another hedge separated to the distance of eight feet, the southern part, which was on a level before with the rest of the field, after this, overhung it as a precipice, about the height of 12 feet; and the land on each side, which had not moved was covered with the rest, which folded over it, to the height of six or seven feet.

In this parish were born Dr. Benjamin Hoadley, late bishop of Winchester, and the immortal general Wolfe.

In the park at Penshurst stands the celebrated oak, now called Bears-oak, said to be planted at sir Philip Sidney's birth,  
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and which measures upwards of twenty-two foot in circumference.

This volume contains a description of eighty-seven parishes in the county of Kent, which are delineated with great accuracy, and rendered the subject of such information as must not only afford pleasure to the antiquary, but entertainment to all who would acquire a topographical knowledge of the county. Mr. Hafted has methodically arranged his materials on every article under distinct heads, which, though often treated copiously, are never swelled with any detail that is either uninteresting, or impertinent in a work of this kind. The extraordinary pains with which these materials have been collected, are abundantly evident from the numerous references at the bottom of every page; and at the same time that the volume is ornamented with a great number of plates, it is uniformly executed with a degree of judgement which has seldom been displayed by those who have prosecuted local researches.

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*A radical and expeditious Cure for a recent Catarrhus Cough. Preceded by some Observations on Respiration; with occasional and practical Remarks on some other Diseases of the Lungs, To which is added a Chapter on the Vis Vitæ, so far as it is concerned in preserving and reinstating the Health of an Animal. Accompanied with some Strictures on the Treatment of Compound Fractures. By John Mudge, F. R. S. 8vo. 3s. Walter.*

**A**FTER treating, in the first chapter, of some theoretical and pathological observations, remotely connected with the disease which forms the principal subject of this volume, the author incidentally introduces several practical remarks, which are particularly worthy of attention. Among these we meet with some relating to incipient tubercles of the lungs. Mr. Mudge observes, that in the early state of this disorder, before the lungs have been greatly injured by the number of tubercles, or those not having advanced to suppuration, are attended only with a dry, husky cough; next to occasional bleedings, temperance, and cooling medicines, perhaps the greatest benefit will be found to arise from scapulary issues, assisted by a vegetable diet and asses milk. For this purpose, he advises that the issue should be much larger than those which modern practice has established; since there ought to be a just proportion between the remedy and the disease, and an efficacious revulsion never can be made without a consider-

able discharge. He confirms the advantage of this method by an instance he had experienced in himself, when young; at which time labouring under a pulmonary complaint, and having tried various other means without effect, he was completely cured by an issue of between two and three inches diameter, and which afterwards held between forty and fifty peas.

We shall present our readers with the following case of a lady, who laboured under a catalepsy, which is related by the author in support of the expediency of deviating from common practice in respect to the administration of other remedies.

\* This lady had been long under the care of the late Dr. Huxham for this formidable disease, without finding the least relief; though, as may be supposed, the most efficacious medicines of the nervous tribe had not been neglected, and among the rest the powder of valerian was principally depended on; but it is to be observed, that it had been given only in 3fs at a dose. As a long course of this and other medicines had been totally ineffectual, insomuch that the disease seemed more and more confirmed; and as I had heretofore seen a case of this kind in St. Thomas's Hospital, where the cure was effected by very large doses of this medicine, I advised a similar trial of it; the consequence of which was, that the patient had her resolution and patience rewarded by a perfect cure. She took of the valerian in substance half an ounce at a dose, twice a day, and did not discontinue the medicine till she had taken to the amount of seven pounds.

A narrative of the effects of medicines, confirmed by faithful observation, being of the greatest advantage in practice, it may not be improper to communicate to our readers Mr. Mudge's remarks on the spitting of blood in a pulmonary consumption. He observes, that in this disorder, besides occasional bleedings to slacken the vessels, the use of the bark, keeping the *primæ viæ* open, and sometimes a quieting anodyne, he knows from long experience there is not a more efficacious remedy than half a drachm of nitre, taken two or three times a day in a glass of water; the coolness it produces, and the quiet superinduced by removing the orgasm, and that restlessness which, in a hectic fever, so generally attends this complaint, being really amazing.

With respect to the catarrhus cough, or that which is subsequent to the catching of cold, our author is of opinion that it proceeds from the pituitary membrane, which forms the internal surface of the lungs, being thickened, and in some mea-

sure

ture inflamed. That such is actually the case, before the glands have been unloaded by the discharge of the obstructed mucus, he considers as evident from the soreness which, at the beginning of the disorder, the cough occasions in the breast, but more particularly at the lower part of the wind-pipe, about the junction of the clavicles. In conformity to this idea of the disorder, Mr. Mudge observes that the two great indications would be, to prevent as much as possible the irritation arising from the convulsive shocks of the cough on the inflamed parts, and to remove the inflammation itself by such emollient applications as can conveniently be administered. He farther remarks, that these intentions are thoroughly answered by opium, and by inhaling warm steams into the lungs; for administering the latter of which he recommends the use of the inhaler, an instrument which is described in the following terms.

\* The body of the instrument holds about a pint; and the handle, which is fixed to the side of it, is hollow. There is in the lower part of the vessel, where it is soldered to the handle, a hole, by means of which, and three others on the upper part of the handle, the water, when it is poured into the inhaler, will rise to the same level in both. To the middle of the cover a flexible tube, about five or six inches long, is fixed, with a mouth-piece of wood or ivory. Underneath the cover there is a valve fixed, which opens and shuts the communication between the upper and internal part of the inhaler and the external air, for a purpose which shall be presently explained.

\* When the mouth is applied to the end of the tube in the act of inspiration, the air rushes into the handle, and up through the body of warm water, and the lungs become, consequently, filled with hot vapour. In expiration, the mouth being still fixed to the tube, the breath, together with the steam on the surface of the water in the inhaler, is forced up through the valve in the cover. In this manner therefore the whole act of respiration is performed through the inhaler, without the necessity, in the act of expiration, of either breathing through the nose, or removing the pipe from the mouth.

To this description of the apparatus, we shall subjoin, in the author's own words, the method directed for using it.

\* In the evening, a little before bed time, the patient, if of adult age, is to take three drachms, or as many tea spoonfuls of elixir paregoricum, in a glass of water; if the subject is younger, for instance under five years old, one tea spoonful; or within that and ten years, two- [Each tea spoonful contains

tains somewhat less than 1 quarter of a grain of opium.] About three quarters of an hour after, the patient should go to bed, and being covered warm, the inhaler three parts filled with water nearly boiling (which from the coldness of the metal, and the time it ordinarily takes before it is used by the patient, will be of a proper degree of warmth) and being wrapped up in a napkin, but so that the valve in the cover is not obstructed by it, is to be placed at the arm-pit, and the bed cloaths being drawn up and over it close to the throat, the tube is to be applied to the mouth, and the patient should inspire and expire through it about twenty minutes, or half an hour.

‘ It is very evident, as the whole act of respiration is performed through the machine, that in inspiration the lungs will be filled with air which will be hot, and loaded with vapour, by passing through the body of water; and in expiration, all that was contained in the lungs will, by mixing with the steam on the surface of the water, be forced through the valve in the cover, and settle on the surface of the body under the bed-cloaths.

‘ The great use of this particular construction of the inhaler is this. First, as there is no necessity, at the end of every inspiration, to remove the tube from the mouth, in order to expire from the lungs the vapour which had been received into them, this machine may therefore be used with as much ease by children as elder people. And, secondly, as a feverish habit frequently accompanies the disorder, the valve in that respect also is of the utmost importance; for a sweat, or at least a free perspiration, not only relieves the patient from the restless anxiety of a hot, dry, and sometimes parched skin, but is also, of all others, the most eligible evacuation for removing the fever; and it will be generally found that, after the inhaler so constructed hath been used a few minutes, the warm vapour under the cloaths will, by settling upon the trunk, produce a sweat, which will gradually extend itself to the legs and feet.

‘ In a catarrhus fever, or any feverish habit attending this cough, it would be proper to take a draught of warm thin whey a few minutes before the inhaler is used; and after the process is over, the sweat which it has produced may be continued by occasional small draughts of weak warm whey, or barley water. The sweating is by no means so necessary to the cure of the catarrhus cough, as that the success of the inhaler against that complaint at all depends upon it; yet I cannot help once more remarking, that when this disorder

happens to be accompanied with a feverish habit, the advantages of this particular construction will be very important.

'After this respiratory process is over, the patient usually passes the night without the least interruption from the cough, and feels no farther molestation from it than, as I observed before, once or twice in the morning to throw off the trifling leakage which, unperceived, had dripped into the bronchiæ and vesicles during the night; the thinner parts of which being evaporated, what remains is soon got rid of with a very gentle effort.'

Mr. Mudge informs us, that if the inhaler be used the same night that the catarrhus cough has made its appearance, it will, in ordinary cases, be productive of an immediate cure; but if the soreness of the respiratory organs, or the violence of the cough, shew the cold which has been contracted to be very severe, he advises that the inhaler, without the opiate, should be repeated for the same time the next morning; as it also ought, if the use of the inhaler has been delayed till the second night. If the cough however has continued some days, it will be necessary to employ both parts of the process at night and the succeeding morning, as the complaint is then more confirmed.

After trying various pectoral ingredients, Mr. Mudge informs us that he found the vapour of none of them so inoffensive and salutary as that from warm water alone.

When the inhaler is used in a few hours after the seizure of the cough, we are told that the patient is infallibly surprised with an immediate cure; but in proportion as the application of this remedy is delayed, the disorder becomes more obstinate.

'If, says our author, the patient expectorates with ease and freedom a thick and well-digested inoffensive phlegm, there is generally but little doubt of his spitting off the disorder, with common care, in a few days; and till that is accomplished, a proper dose of elixir paregoricum for a few successive nights will be found very useful in suppressing the fatiguing irritation and ineffectual cough, occasioned by a matter which, dripping in the early state of the disease into the bronchiæ during the night, is commonly at that time too thin to be discharged by those convulsive efforts.

'If, however, notwithstanding a free and copious expectoration, the cough should still continue, and the discharge, instead of removing the complaint, should itself, by becoming a disease, be a greater expence than the constitution can well support, it is possible that a tender patient may spit off his  
life

life through a weak, relaxed pair of lungs, without the least appearance of purulence, or any suspicion of suppuration. In those circumstances, besides, as was mentioned before, increasing the general perspiration by the salutary friction of a flannel waistcoat, change of situation, and more especially long journies on horseback, conducted as much as possible through a thin, sharp, dry air, will seldom fail of removing the complaint.

‘ But, on the contrary, if the cough should, at the same time that it is petulant and fatiguing to the breast, continue dry, husky, and without expectoration; provided there is reason to hope that no tubercles are forming, or yet actually formed, there is not perhaps a more efficacious remedy for it than half a drachm of gum ammoniacum, with eighteen or twenty drops of laudanum made into pills, and taken at bedtime, and occasionally repeated. This excellent remedy sir John Pringle did me the honour to communicate to me, and I have accordingly found it, in a great many instances, amazingly successful, and generally very expeditiously so, for it seldom fails to produce an expectoration, and to abate the distressing fatigue of the cough. In those circumstances I have likewise found the common remedy of ʒss. or ʒii. of bals. sulph. anifat. taken twice a day, in a little powdered sugar, or any other vehicle, a very efficacious one. I have also, many times, known a salutary revulsion made from the lungs by the simple application of a large plaister, about five or six inches diameter, of pix Burgund. between the shoulders; for the perspirable matter, which is locked up under it, becomes so sharp and acrid, that in a few days it seldom fails to produce a very considerable itching, some little tendency to inflammation, and, very frequently, a great number of boils. This application should be continued (the plaister being occasionally changed) for three weeks, or a month, or longer, if the complaint is not so soon removed.’

When we consider the frequency of the catarrhus cough in this climate, and that it often lays the foundation of obstinate and fatal complaints, we cannot but receive uncommon satisfaction from the account of a method of cure, so easy, simple, and successful as that which is here described. Besides an explicit detail of the use of the inhaler, and the circumstances in which it is indicated, Mr. Mudge has occasionally presented his readers with many valuable remarks on pulmonary disorders in general; to which is annexed an ingenious theoretical treatise on the *vis vite*, so far as it is concerned in preserving or reinstating the health of an animal.

Isaiah. *A new Translation ; with a Preliminary Dissertation, and Notes critical, philological, and explanatory.* By Robert Lowth, D. D. F. R. SS. Lond. and Goettin. Lord Bishop of London. 4to. 18s. boards. Cadell. [Continued from p. 334.]

**I**T is universally allowed, that a translation should be an exact representation of the original. But the means, by which this is to be performed, are not so generally ascertained. Some are advocates for paraphrastic versions; and pretend, that Horace countenances this opinion, when he says,

‘Nec verbum verbo curabis reddere, fidus  
Interpres.’ De Art. Poet. v. 133.

But in this passage the author is speaking of tragic poets, not of translators. If, says he, you take your fable from Homer, you must not follow the original in every minute circumstance, and give us word for word: this is the business of a faithful translator, not of a poet. Horace therefore does not here express his disapprobation of a literal translation, but rather the contrary. At least, his authority is absurdly produced in favour of vague and paraphrastic versions.

Cicero translated two orations of Æschines and Demosthenes; and he tells us, that in this performance he pursued the following plan: ‘Nec converti ut interpres, sed ut orator, sententiis iisdem, & earum formis, tanquam figuris, verbis ad nostram consuetudinem aptis, in quibus non verbum pro verbo necesse habui reddere, sed genus omnium verborum, vimque servavi: non enim ea me annumerare lectori putavi oportere, sed appendere\*.’

What liberties Cicero took on this occasion we do not know; for his translations are lost. But we must remember, that his plan, admitting it to be right, cannot be pursued in all cases with equal propriety. He translated ‘as an orator;’ and consequently might be allowed to deviate from the original, in order to express himself with more energy, grace, and harmony.

St. Jerom quotes this passage as a justification of his usual practice in translating. ‘Profiteor me, says he, non verbum è verbo, sed sensum exprimere de sensu.’ And he gives us a reason for this practice: ‘Si ad verbum interpretor, absurdè resonat.’ But then he very properly adds: ‘Si ob necessitatem aliquid in ordine, vel in sermone mutavero, ab interpretis videbor officio recessisse†.’

\* Cic. de Opt. Gen. Orat. § 14.

† Hieron. de Opt. Gen. interpretandi, vol. ii. p. 366.

A modern author of reputation totally disclaims the idea of a literal translation.

To translate, says he, servilely into modern language an ancient author, phrase by phrase, and word by word, is preposterous. Nothing can be more unlike the original than such a copy. It is not to shew, it is to disguise the author; and he who has known him only in this dress, would not know him in his own. A good writer instead of taking this inglorious and unprofitable task upon him will 'jouër contre original,' rather imitate than translate, and rather emulate than imitate. He will transfuse the sense and spirit of the original into his own work; and will endeavour to write, as the ancient author would have done, had he written in the same language †.

These principles, we confess, are usually observed by the generality of translators; but they are principles, which admit of great latitude, and should be pursued with the utmost caution in translating the scriptures. Here, if we strike out into a paraphrastic version, and 'imitate rather than translate,' we shall probably misrepresent the author's meaning, and pursue a phantom of our own creation. If we observe Cicero's rule, making use of 'terms and phrases adapted to the present mode,' we destroy, at least, one of the distinguishing characteristics of scripture, its *ἀρχαϊσμος*, its air of antiquity; and alter its lineaments; as a painter, who compliments a lady of sixty with a face of thirty. If we attempt to give it any rhetorical embellishments, we divest the sacred authors of that plain and primitive cloathing, which is suitable to their venerable characters; and imitate the conduct of Herod, who arrayed our Saviour in gorgeous robes, and thus exposed him to derision.

What course shall we then pursue? There is no way but one. The most literal translation is the best, where the language will bear it, and the sense and spirit of the author can be fully expressed. A paraphrase should never be admitted, but when a literal translation is impracticable; and this we will venture to say, is very seldom the case in translating into the English language.

We entirely agree with this learned and judicious writer, when he says,

\* The first and principal business of a translator is to give the plain literal and grammatical sense of his author; the obvious meaning of his words, phrases, and sentences, and to express them in the language into which he translates, as far as may be,

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† Boileau. *Boling. on Hist.* p. 63.

in equivalent words, phrases, and sentences. Whatever indulgence may be allowed him in other respects; however excusable he may be, if he fail of attaining the elegance, the spirit, the sublimity of his author; which will generally be in some degree the case, if his author excels at all in those qualities; want of fidelity admits of no excuse, and is intitled to no indulgence. This is peculiarly so in subjects of high importance, such as the Holy Scriptures, in which so much depends on the phrase and expression; and particularly in prophetic books of Scripture; where from the letter are often deduced deep and recondite senses, which must owe all their weight and solidity to the just and accurate interpretation of the words of the prophecy. For whatever senses are supposed to be included in the prophet's words, spiritual, mystical, allegorical, analogical, or the like, they must all intirely depend on the literal sense. This is the only foundation upon which such interpretations can be securely raised; and if this is not firmly and well established, all that is built upon it will fall to the ground.

The author illustrates this observation by the following example.

‘ If כְּתוֹא מְכַמֵּר, Is. li. 20. does not signify *ὡς στυλίου ἡμιφθον*, like parboiled bete, as the lxx. render it, but like an oryx, (a large, fierce, wild beast) in the toils; what becomes of Theodoret's explication of this image? *Καθευδόντες ὡς στυλίου ἡμιφθον*] *Ἐδειξεν αὐτῶν διὰ μέν τε ὑπὸν τὸ ῥάθυμον, διὰ δὲ τε λαχάνε το ἀνανδρον.* According to this interpretation the prophet would express the drowsiness and flaccidity, the slothfulness and want of spirit, of his countrymen. Whereas his idea was impotent rage, and obstinate violence, subdued by a superior power; the Jews taken in the snares of their own wickedness, struggling in vain, till overspent and exhausted they sink under the weight of God's judgments. And Procopius's explication of the same passage, according to the rendering of the words by Aquila, Symmachus, and Theodotion, which is probably the true one, is almost as foreign to the purpose: “He compares, saith he, the people of Jerusalem to the oryx, that is to a bird; because they are taken in the snares of the devil, and therefore are delivered over to wrath.” Such strange and absurd deductions of notions and ideas, foreign to the author's drift and design, will often arise from the invention of commentators, who have nothing but an inaccurate translation to work upon. This was the case of the generality of the fathers of the Christian church, who wrote comments on the Old Testament: and it is no wonder, that we find them of little service in leading us into the true meaning and the deep sense of the prophetic writings.’

It being then a translator's indispensable duty faithfully and religiously to express the sense of his author, he ought to take great care that he proceed upon just principles of cri-

ticism, in a rational method of interpretation; and that the copy from which he translates be accurate and perfect in itself, or corrected as carefully as possible by the best authorities, and on the clearest result of critical enquiry.

The method, as our author observes, of studying the scriptures of the Old Testament, has been very defective hitherto in both these respects. Besides the difficulties attending it, arising from the nature of the thing itself; from the language in which it is written; and the condition in which it is come down to us through so many ages; what we have of it being the scanty relics of a language formerly copious; and consequently the true meaning of many words and phrases being obscure and dubious, and perhaps incapable of being clearly ascertained. Besides these impediments necessarily inherent in the subject, others have been thrown in the way of our progress in the study of these writings from prejudice, and an ill-founded opinion of the authority of the Jews, both as interpreters and conservators of them.

‘ The Masoretic punctuation, by which the pronunciation of the language is given, the forms of the several parts of speech, the construction of the words, the distribution and limits of the sentences, and the connection of the several members, are fixed, is in effect an interpretation of the Hebrew text made by the Jews of late ages, probably not earlier than the eighth century; and may be considered in the translation of the Old Testament. Where the words unpointed are capable of various meanings, according as they may be variously pronounced and constructed, the Jews by their pointing have determined them to one meaning and construction; and the sense which they thus give is their sense of the passage: just as the rendering of a translator into another language is his sense; that is, the sense in which in his opinion the original words are to be taken; and it has no other authority, than what arises from its being agreeable to the rules of just interpretation. But because in the languages of Europe the vowels are essential parts of written words, a notion was too hastily taken up by the learned at the revival of letters, when the original Scriptures began to be more carefully examined, that the vowel points were necessary appendages of the Hebrew letters, and therefore coeval with them; at least that they became absolutely necessary, when the Hebrew was become a dead language, and must have been added by Ezra, who collected and formed the canon of the Old Testament, in regard to all the books of it in his time extant. On this supposition the points have been considered as part of the Hebrew text, and as giving the meaning of it on no less than divine authority. Accordingly our public translations in the modern tongues for the use of the church among Protestants, and so likewise the modern Latin translations, are for the most part close copies of the Hebrew

pointed text, and are in reality only versions at second hand, translations of the Jews interpretation of the Old Testament. We do not deny the usefulness of this interpretation, nor would we be thought to detract from its merit by setting it in this light: it is perhaps upon the whole preferable to any one of the antient versions; it has probably the great advantage of having been formed upon a traditionary explanation of the text, and of being generally agreeable to that sense of Scripture, which passed current, and was commonly received by the Jewish nation in antient times; and it has certainly been of great service to the moderns in leading them into the knowledge of the Hebrew tongue. But they would have made a much better use of it, and a greater progress in the explication of the Scriptures of the Old Testament, had they consulted it, without absolutely submitting to its authority; had they considered it as an assistant, not as an infallible guide.\*

The Masoretic points are undoubtedly a modern invention. Among a variety of arguments, which might be alleged in favour of this opinion, we shall only mention one. The Greek alphabet is undoubtedly borrowed from that of the Hebrews. The names of the letters evidently shew their origin. Yet there are not the least traces of these points, their characters or their names, in the Greek language. Now, it is not conceivable, that the Greeks would form their vowels out of consonants, and pay no regard to those characters, which are now supposed to be the very life and soul of the Hebrew alphabet, if those characters had then existed\*.

Our author proceeds:

‘ To what a length an opinion lightly taken up, and embraced with a full assent without due examination, may be carried, we may see in another example of much the same kind. The learned of the church of Rome who have taken the liberty of giving translations of Scripture in the modern languages, have for the most part subjected and devoted themselves to a prejudice equally groundless and absurd. The council of Trent declared the Latin translation of the Scriptures called the Vulgate, which had been for many ages in use in their church, to be authentic; a very ambiguous term, which ought to have been more precisely defined, than the fathers of this council chose to define it. Upon this ground many contended, that the Vulgate version was dictated by the Holy Spirit; at least was providentially guarded against all error; was consequently of divine authority, and more to be regarded than even the original Hebrew and Greek texts. And in effect, the decree of the council, however limited and moderated by the explanation of some of their more judicious divines, has given to the Vul-

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\* See Crit. Rev. vol. xxiii. p. 6. xxx. p. 221.

gate such a high degree of authority, that, in this instance at least, the translation has taken place of the original: for these translators, instead of the Hebrew and Greek texts, profess to translate the Vulgate. Indeed when they find the Vulgate very notoriously deficient in expressing the sense, they do the original Scriptures the honour of consulting them, and take the liberty by following them of departing from their authentic guide: but in general the Vulgate is their original text; and they give us a translation of a translation; by which second transference of the holy Scriptures into another tongue, still more of the original sense must be lost, and more of the genuine spirit must evaporate.

The other prejudice, which has stood in the way, and obstructed our progress in the true understanding of the Old Testament, a prejudice even more unreasonable than the former, is the notion that has prevailed of the great care and skill of the Jews in preserving the text, and transmitting it down to the present times pure, and intirely free from all mistakes, as it came from the hands of the authors. In opposition to which opinion it has been often observed, that such a perfect degree of integrity no human skill or care could warrant: it must imply no less than a constant miraculous superintendence of divine Providence, to guide the hand of the copyist, and to guard him from error, in respect to every transcript that has been made through so long a succession of ages. And it is universally acknowledged, that Almighty God has not thought such a miraculous interposition necessary in regard to the Scriptures of the New Testament, at least of equal authority and importance with those of the Old; we plainly see, that he has not exempted them from the common lot of other books; the copies of these, as well as of other antient writings, differing in some degree from one another, so that no one of them has any just pretension to be a perfect and intire copy, truly and precisely representing in every word and letter the originals, as they came from the hands of the several authors. All writings transmitted to us, like these, from early times, the original copies of which have long ago perished, have suffered in their passage to us by the mistakes of many transcribers, through whose hands we have received them; errors continually accumulating in proportion to the number of transcripts, and the stream generally becoming more impure, the more distant it is from the source. Now the Hebrew writings of the Old Testament being for much the greatest part the most antient of any; instead of finding them absolutely perfect, we may reasonably expect to find, that they have suffered in this respect more than others of less antiquity generally have done.

But beside this common source of errors, there is a circumstance very unfavourable in this respect to these writings in particular, which makes them peculiarly liable to mistakes in transcribing; that is, the great similitude which some letters bear to

others in the Hebrew Alphabet : such as א to ב, ג to ד, ה to ו; ז to ח; ט, י, and י to one another; more perhaps than are to be found in any other alphabet whatsoever; and in so great a degree of likeness, that they are hardly distinguishable even in some printed copies; and not only these letters, but others likewise, beside these, are not easily distinguished from one another in many manuscripts. This must have been a perpetual cause of frequent mistakes; of which, in regard to the two first pairs of letters above noted, there are many undeniable examples; inso-much that a change of one of the similar letters for the other, when it remarkably clears up the sense, may be fairly allowed to criticism, even without any other authority than that of the context to support it.

‘ But to these natural sources of errors, as we may call them, the Jewish copyists have added others, by some absurd practices, which they have adopted, in transcribing: such as their consulting more the fair appearance of their copy than the correctness of it; by wilfully leaving mistakes uncorrected, lest by erasing they should diminish the beauty and the value of the transcript; (for instance, when they had written a word, or part of a word, wrongly, and immediately saw their mistake, they left the mistake uncorrected, and wrote the word anew after it;) their scrupulous regard to the evenness and fulness of their lines; which induced them to cut off from the ends of lines a letter or letters, for which there was not sufficient room, (for they never divided a word so that the parts of it should belong to two lines; and to add to the ends of lines letters wholly insignificant, by way of expletives to fill up a vacant space; their custom of writing part of a word at the end of a line, where there was not room for the whole, and then giving the whole word at the beginning of the next line. These and some other like practices manifestly tended to multiply mistakes; they were so many traps and snares laid in the way of future transcribers, and must have given occasion to frequent errors.

‘ These circumstances considered, it would be the most astonishing of all miracles, if, notwithstanding the acknowledged fallibility of transcribers, and their proneness to error from the nature of the subject itself on which they were employed, the Hebrew writings of the Old Testament had come down to us through their hands absolutely pure, and free from all mistakes whatsoever.’

If it be asked, what then is the real condition of the present Hebrew text, our author answers, that the condition of the Hebrew text is such, as from the nature of the thing, the antiquity of the writings themselves, the want of due care, or critical skill, (in which latter at least the Jews have been exceedingly deficient,) might in all reason have been expected; that the mistakes are frequent and of various kinds, of letters, words, and sentences; by variation, omission, transposition;

sition; such as often injure the beauty and elegance, embarrass the construction, alter or obscure the sense, and sometimes render it quite unintelligible.

If it be objected, that a concession so large as this is, tends to invalidate the authority of scripture, the author replies:

‘Casual errors may blemish parts, but do not destroy, or much alter, the whole. If the *Iliad* or the *Æneid* had come down to us with more errors in all the copies than are to be found in the worst manuscript now extant of either; without doubt many particular passages would have lost much of their beauty, in many the sense would have been greatly injured, in some rendered wholly unintelligible; but the plan of the poem in the whole and in its parts, the fable, the mythology, the machinery, the characters, the great constituent parts, would still have been visible and apparent, without having suffered any essential diminution of their greatness. Of all the precious remains of antiquity perhaps Aristotle’s *Treatise on Poetry* is come down to us as much injured by time as any: as it has been greatly mutilated in the whole, some considerable members of it being lost; so the parts remaining have suffered in proportion, and many passages are rendered very obscure, probably by the imperfection and frequent mistakes of the copies now extant. Yet, notwithstanding these disadvantages, this treatise, so much injured by time and so mutilated, still continues to be the great code of criticism; the fundamental principles of which are plainly deducible from it: we still have recourse to it for the rules and laws of epic and dramatic poetry, and the imperfection of the copy does not at all impeach the authority of the legislator. Important and fundamental doctrines do not wholly depend on single passages; an universal harmony runs through the holy Scriptures; the parts mutually support each other, and supply one another’s deficiencies and obscurities. Superficial damages and partial defects may greatly diminish the beauty of the edifice, without injuring its strength, and bringing on utter ruin and destruction.’

The copies of the Holy Scriptures of the Old Testament being then subject, like all other ancient writings, to mistakes, arising from the unskilfulness or inattention of transcribers, it is to be considered, what remedy can be applied in this case. His lordship answers: ‘the method which has been used with good effect in correcting the ancient Greek and Latin authors, ought in all reason to be applied to the Hebrew writings,’ viz. the collation of MSS.—On this occasion he mentions Dr. Kennicott’s edition of the Hebrew Bible, with various readings collected from above 600 MSS. and some ancient printed copies, as the greatest and most important work, that has been undertaken and accomplished since the revival of letters.

But

But the Hebrew text of the Old Testament, compared with the text of ancient Greek and Latin authors, has, he observes, in one respect greatly the disadvantage. There are MSS. of the latter, which are much nearer in time to the age of the authors; and have suffered much less, in proportion to the shorter space of time intervening. For example, the Medicean MS. of Virgil was written probably within four or five hundred years after the time of the poet: whereas the oldest of the Hebrew MSS. now known to be extant, do not come nearer, than about fourteen centuries, to the age of Ezra\*. So that we can hardly expect much more from this vast collection of variations, taken in themselves as correctors of the text, exclusively of other consequences, than to be able by their means to discharge and eliminate the errors, that have been gathering and accumulating in the copies for about 1000 years past; and to give us now as good and correct a text, as was commonly current among the Jews, or might easily have been obtained, so long ago.

\* On the other hand, he says, we have a great advantage in regard to the Hebrew text, which the Greek and Latin authors generally want, and which in some degree makes up for the defect of age in the present Hebrew MSS: that is, from the several antient versions of the Old Testament in different languages made in much earlier times, and from MSS. in all probability much more correct and perfect than any now extant. These versions, for the most part, being evidently intended for exact literal renderings of the Hebrew text, may be considered in some respect as representatives of the MSS. from which they were taken: and when the version gives us a sense better in itself, and more agreeable to the context, than the Hebrew text offers, and at the same time answerable to a word or words similar to those of the Hebrew text, and only differing from it by the change of one or more similar letters, or by the different position of the same letters, or by some other inconsiderable variation, we have good reason to believe, that the similar Hebrew words answering to the version were indeed the very reading that stood in the MS. from which the translation was made. To add strength to this way of reasoning, it is to be observed, that the MSS. now extant frequently confirm such supposed reading of those MSS. from which the ancient versions were taken, in opposition to the authority of the present printed Hebrew text; and make the collection of variations, now preparing for the public, of the highest importance; as they give a new evidence of the fidelity of the ancient versions, and set them upon a footing of authority, which they never could obtain before. They were looked upon as the work of wild and licentious in-

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\* Ezra, before Christ, 454. Usher.

interpreters, who often departed from the text, which they undertook to render, without any good reason, and only followed their own fancy and caprice. The present Hebrew MSS. so often justify the versions in such passages, that we cannot but conclude, that in many others likewise the difference of the version from the present original is not to be imputed to the licentiousness of the translator, but to the carelessness of the Hebrew copyist: and this affords a just and reasonable ground for correcting the Hebrew text on the authority of the ancient versions.\*

These ancient versions are contained in the London Polyglott.

\* The Greek version, commonly called the Septuagint, or of the Seventy Interpreters, probably made by different hands (the number of them uncertain) and at different times, as the exigence of the Jewish church at Alexandria, and in other parts of Egypt required, is of the first authority, and of the greatest use in correcting the Hebrew text; as being the most antient of all; and as the copy, from which it was translated, appears to have been free from many errors, which afterwards by degrees got into the text. But the version of Isaiah is not so old as that of the Pentateuch by a hundred years and more, having been made in all probability after the time of Antiochus Epiphanes, when the reading of the prophets in the Jewish synagogues began to be practised, and even after the building of Onias's temple, to favour which there seems to have been some artifice employed in a certain passage of Isaiah in this version\*. And it unfortunately happens, that Isaiah has had the hard fate to meet with a translator very unworthy of him, there being hardly any book in the Old Testament so ill rendered in that version, as this of Isaiah. Add to this, that the version of Isaiah, as well as other parts of the Greek version, is come down to us in bad condition, incorrect, and with frequent omissions and interpolations. Yet, with all these disadvantages, with all its faults and imperfections, this version is of more use in correcting the Hebrew text, than any other whatsoever.

\* The Arabic version sometimes verifies the reading of the Septuagint, being, for the most part at least, taken from that version.

\* The Chaldee Paraphrase of Jonathan Ben Uziel, made about or before the time of our Saviour, though it often wanders from the text in a wordy allegorical explanation, yet very frequently adheres to it closely, and gives a verbal rendering of it; and accordingly is sometimes of great use in ascertaining the true reading of the Hebrew text.

\* The Syriac version stands next in order of time, but is superior to the Chaldee in usefulness and authority, as well in ascertaining, as in explaining the Hebrew text. It is a close

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\* Chap. xix. 18.

translation of the Hebrew into a language of near affinity to it. It is supposed to have been made as early as the first century.

• The fragments of the three Greek versions of Aquila, Symmachus, and Theodotion, all made in the second century, which are collected in the Hexapla of Mountfaucon, are of considerable use for the same purpose.

• The Vulgate being for the most part the translation of Jerom made in the fourth century, is of service in the same way in proportion to its antiquity.

Besides the assistance derived from these ancient versions, his lordship acknowledges his obligations to his friends: to the learned Mr. Woide for his extracts from the Fragments of a MS. of a Coptic version of Isaiah, made from the LXX. and now preserved in the library of St. Germain de Prez at Paris; to the same gentleman, for the collation of two Greek MSS. of Isaiah, in the British Museum; to the late excellent archbishop Secker, for his learned annotations on the Bible, now deposited in the library at Lambeth; to the late Dr. Durell for his remarks on the prophets; to Dr. Kennicott for his valuable collation of Hebrew manuscripts; and to others, whose names are mentioned in the notes.

[ *To be concluded in our next.* ]

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*A Dissertation on the Languages, Literature, and Manners of Eastern Nations. Originally prefixed to a Dictionary, Persian, Arabic, and English. The Second Edition. To which is added, Part II. containing Additional Observations. Together with further Remarks on A New Analysis of Ancient Mythology: in answer to An Apology\*, addressed to the Author, by Jacob Bryant, Esq. By John Richardson, Esq. F. S. A. 8vo. 7s. bound. Murray.*

WE formerly gave our opinion of the first part of this Dissertation, and of the Dictionary to which it is prefixed. While we had occasion to commend the persevering industry of Mr. Richardson in forming a compilation so essentially useful to the servants of the East India Company, and so favourable to the pursuits of men of letters, we were obliged to admire the bold originality of thinking that is discovered in almost every page of his Dissertation. This performance shows him possessed of two qualities, which are rarely found united in an author, a laborious application, with a rich exuberance of fancy. Its superior merit has extorted a panegyric even from Mr. Bryant. He observes in his Apology, 'that this is

\* The Apology was never published: but the arguments it contains may be collected from this article.

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by no means like the former \*, a dry and scholastic business ; the offspring of a dull grammarian ; but a composition highly coloured and embellished ; abounding with tropes and figures, and enriched with a multiplicity of learning ; so that we are bewildered in the variety of entertainment.

The second part of Mr. Richardson's performance does not fall short of the first ; but is equally new, ingenious, and interesting. It is divided into two chapters, each consisting of several sections. The first section contains his observations upon the general credit to which the Greek historians are entitled in opposition to the Persian ; upon the expedition of Xerxes ; and upon the idea of the Grecians being tributary or subject to the Persian kings. On the first head he takes notice of the concurring testimony of Latin writers as well as of the later writers among the Greeks, to prove the little credit that is to be given to the early historians of Greece. He proves it to have been the general voice of antiquity, that these historians were strongly infected with the love of fable ; that they were continually in opposition one with another ; and that there was not any thing clear, positive, and authentic to be learned from their writings. He mentions the opinion of many learned moderns to the same purpose, and cites innumerable passages of this kind from Mr. Bryant ; who has treated Mr. Richardson with great severity for maintaining opinions extremely similar to his own.

After giving the fullest evidence that can be required on this subject, Mr. Richardson observes there can be no great presumption in supposing, amidst so much error, some amendment possible. Can there be any impropriety in enquiring how far the records of the Persians may, in respect of their own history, correct the mistakes and the fictions of the Greeks ? Or can there be much harm in directing the attention of ingenious and learned travellers to the discovery of such ancient eastern materials as may tend either to authenticate or to confute the eastern historians of more modern times ?

Xenophon and Ctesias were among the few Greeks who could have even an opportunity of consulting the Persian records. Yet there are not two productions of antiquity more questioned than the *Cyropaedia* of Xenophon, and the *Annals* of Ctesias. Plato and Cicero consider the former as no-

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\* The former, Mr. Bryant tells us, ' is the work of an anonymous writer, a person of undoubted learning, who has undertaken to give an account of the yearly productions in literature ; among other works he has mentioned mine, and very little to its advantage.'

thing more than a beautiful Romance; but notwithstanding their opinion, the Cyropaedia has been followed as an authentic history by Josephus, Eusebius, Usher, and Prideaux. The authors of the Universal History consider its authority as far preferable to that of Herodotus; while Scaliger, Erasmus, and many others, look upon it as a collection of figments. Dr. Jackson declares that it has misled every writer who has attempted to follow it. At the same time he styles Herodotus the most accurate and faithful historian; and considers Ctesias in a light very different from that in which he has appeared to the learned in general. To Ctesias, on the other hand, sir Isaac Newton pays small regard; but to Herodotus, whose authority is totally rejected by Strabo, he looks up with high respect; calling him the father of history, and endeavouring to reconcile with him every point of early chronology. Amidst this extraordinary opposition of opinions among men of uncommon learning, industry, and discernment, Mr. Richardson supposes with Vossius, that it must be extremely difficult, if not impossible, to attain the truth.

No subject has afforded a more extensive field for dissension than the Babylonish, Assyrian, Median, and Persian dynasties. The operations of chronologers in adjusting the æra and reign, of different princes to the several systems, which they support are worthy of attention. When they meet with kings that puzzle them, they cut them off without ceremony: or perhaps they turn them upside down; they fashion Assyrians into Babylonians, Persians into Medes; and whilst they find here an hundred years too much, and there an hundred years too little, they dispute with keenness a few months in a prince's reign, who, most probably, never reigned at all. As to profane history, these operations are harmless and therefore amusing. But they deserve serious animadversion when applied to the sacred writings. By a singular impropriety, learned men have supposed errors, where they should have supposed none; and there is hardly one instance in which the Persian history as related by the Greeks, has been produced in support of scripture, in which some obvious inconsistency may not be discovered. Of this Mr. Richardson offers many striking examples. On the other hand, it is by no means impossible that the present Persian historians, if examined with attention, authenticated by means of earlier writers, and connected with the ancient royal records of Persia, might be found, in general, to coincide more nearly with the sacred writings; and at any rate it is impossible that they should occasion more confusion than the learned have already created, by adhering

in their commentaries to the chronology and narrative of the Greeks.

As to the expedition of Xerxes, Mr. Richardson has endeavoured to prove, that many particulars concerning it have been very much exaggerated by Greek writers. He laughs at a bridge of boats over the Hellespont, a straight of the sea two miles in breadth, where the current when the wind blows from the north, rushes with a rapidity that no vessel can resist. He is not more inclined to believe in the cutting of mount Athos, a promontory on the coast of Macedonia, which, as we are informed by a chain of Greek writers \*, Xerxes, for three years before he crossed the Hellespont, had employed a number of men in separating from the continent, in order to make a canal for his shipping. He can give no credit to the five millions of soldiers which Xerxes carried along with him in this romantic enterprize, as it appears impossible to explain in what manner such a body of troops could have been either paid or subsisted.

We are disposed to agree with Mr. Richardson in believing that many things concerning the Persian invasion has been very much misrepresented; at the same time it is absolutely impossible that the leading circumstances should not be founded on truth. Herodotus rehearsed his history at the Olympic games, in the presence of those who had themselves witnessed the exploits which he relates. The national vanity of the Athenians, Spartans, Thespians, and Plateans, might incline them to excuse exaggeration which redounded to their glory and renown; but the Thebans, Argives, and all the other states which either declined to unite with the defenders of Greece, or co-operated with the Persians, could not have borne with patience a romance, which covered them with ignominy and disgrace. The particulars which Herodotus relates, are frequently repeated by subsequent orators and historians; yet we never find that they were called in question in Greece, or that the smallest objection was offered against them, by those who had a direct interest in exposing their falsehoods.

We are informed by Mr. Richardson, that the Persian historians have hardly mentioned the Grecians but in the light of tributaries till the reign of Philip of Macedon. He adds, that if we pay a little attention to the Grecians themselves, we shall perceive that this idea was not adopted without some foundation. For, that almost every state, European or Asiatic, without excepting even Athens and Sparta, were at dif-

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\* Herodotus, Lyfias, and Ifocrates.

ferent times, and in different degrees, under the controul of the Persian kings, will not with justice be disputed by any man who has read with attention the historians of Greece. In confirmation of this, he takes notice that the fleet of Xerxes, as enumerated by Herodotus and Diodorus, consisted not only of Ionians, Ætolians, Dorians, and other Asiatic Greeks, but also of Rhodians, Samians, Chians, Thessalians, Achæans; while his land army, on his arrival in Europe, was, according to Lyfias and other writers, reinforced by every Grecian state; Athens, Sparta, Thespia, and Platea excepted. 'What conclusions can be drawn from such undoubted facts? Have such states the appearance of independence? That there were frequent struggles against the Persian power, headed by the Athenians and Lacedæmonians, cannot be doubted; but it seems to be equally undoubted, that on the appearance of the Persian armies, those republics, who, either from fear or choice, continued in obedience, immediately, like the Phrygians, Syrians, and other subjects of the empire, joined the royal standard; and fought, without compulsion or reluctance, against their countrymen.'

We imagine that these observations are not altogether agreeable to the testimony of ancient writers. It is true indeed that the Asiatic Greeks were under a temporary subjection to Persia. They were conquered by the elder Cyrus, laid under contribution, and, in the revenue roll of Darius Hystaspes, are rated, with other neighbouring states, at four hundred talents. But we remember no period at which the European Greeks can be considered as tributaries; nor any one occasion upon which they ever advanced a single obolus to the Persian exchequer. They frequently indeed served the Persians in their wars against Egypt and other revolting provinces, and their services were well paid. But so far from benefiting the Persian revenue, the Greek states put the Great King, as he was called in those days, to a considerable expence in bribing the leading men and most eloquent orators, in order to gain an undue influence in the Grecian councils. Among many examples of this kind it is sufficient to mention that of Timocrates the Rhodian, who was sent with an immense sum into Greece, in order to engage the principal demagogues to stir up a civil war in that country; which obliged the Lacedæmonians to call home Agesilaus, who was carrying on a successful war against the Persians in their own territories. After the famous victories of Salamis and Platea, the Greeks attained such an ascendant over the Persians, that they not only procured liberty for their Asiatic colonies, but compelled the king of Persia to agree to a treaty, by which no Persian fleet was to pass the Pha-

Phaselis, and no land-army to be led within a limited distance of the Grecian possessions. The unhappy divisions, which afterwards prevailed in Greece, and which weakened and exhausted that unfortunate country, made it necessary to conclude a very different treaty, at the distance of fifty years, called the peace of Antalcidas. By this agreement, which was entered into three hundred and eighty-seven years before Christ, the Greek cities in Asia, with the peninsula of Clazomene and the island of Cyprus were rendered subject to Persia; Athens preserved her authority in the isles of Lemnos, Imbros, and Scyros; and all the other states, great and small, enjoyed the independent government of their own laws. This peace is mentioned by the orators and historians of that age as dishonourable to the Grecian name; and as the most infamous transaction that ever took place between them and the Persians. Yet by the express conditions of it, all the European states were declared independent; not of the Persian power, to which they were never subject, but of the unjust authority which they usurped over each other.—It is true, indeed, that the Persians in their invasion were assisted by Grecian reinforcements: but the Greeks followed them not as tributaries, but as allies; they did not, like other subjects of the empire, repair to the royal standard upon the summons of a master; but were either compelled by force, or induced by avarice, to abandon the interests of their country. They were, on this account, branded as traitors by the Athenians and Spartans; they were deprived of many privileges which were before enjoyed in common by the whole Grecian name; and, in all political disputes where the interests of different republics were discussed, the infamy of joining with the Persians was a perpetual source of reproach, and the merit of defending the public cause, a never-failing topic of panegyric\*.

The second section of Mr. Richardson's performance relates to the condition of women in the East. Notwithstanding the prevailing opinion that they are, in general, reduced to a state of servitude, he proves, on the clearest evidence, that a distinction ought to be made between the Circassian slaves, and the natives of Arabia and other eastern countries. The latter are not only free, but entitled to many important privileges, and treated with great honour and respect. They have a right, by the laws, to the enjoyment of independent property, by inheritance, by gift, by marriage-settlements, and every other mode of acquisition. To the wealth amassed by the Arabian women, he traces the origin of the Mahom-

\* See the Orations of Lysias and Isocrates, with the discourse on the History and Manners of the Greeks, by Dr. Gillies.

medan religion. He shews that they have ever possessed a powerful influence in the management of public affairs; that at many of the eastern courts success principally depends on the interest of the women; and that their intrigues have often shaken the power of the best established ministers. The authority which they acquired is often independent of the force of their charms; and maintained with unabating power through the declining period of life. The section concludes with entertaining observations on marriages, divorce, female dress, and the origin of many European fashions which may be discovered in the East.

Section III. treats of the passive obedience of the Asiatics, which is illustrated by many facts extremely curious and interesting. 'That steady system of constitutional government, founded upon laws, which, whilst it gives to the monarch a solid dignity, points out to the subject the happy medium between rational obedience and abject submission, has in all times been imperfectly known in the East. There the despotism of the prince, checked only by the momentary and desultory resistance of the people, alternately curbs and unreins the spirit; and places the Asiatic character in lights so opposite, that we must not be surprised to find a singular mixture of slavishness and freedom in the description of the same people.' This subject is illustrated by the implicit obedience of the Carmathians to the orders of their chiefs; and by the abject and unlimited submission of the assassins or subjects of the old man of the mountain.—Mr. Richardson supports his narratives, even those which appear the most extraordinary, by a great weight of authorities from the most approved oriental writers. A story which he relates of an envoy who precipitated himself from a rock, at the supposed order of the king of Arabia Felix, is compared superciliously by Mr. Bryant to Mother Goose's Tales. Yet this story is related not only by all the contemporary writers of the East, but by Sale, D'Herbelot, and other European orientalists; and many instances are given of facts equally remote from European manners, but not therefore incredible; for they are extremely consistent with the ideas and principles, which prevail in eastern countries, and are supported by the fullest and most uncontrovertible evidence. Mr. Richardson justly takes occasion, from the severe animadversions of the learned gentleman, to condemn that narrow, illiberal spirit, which looks proudly down upon all science without its own pale, and ignorantly measures objects of every kind by the little limited standard of its own mean prejudices.

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Notwithstanding the absolute power of the prince, and the unlimited submission of the people, full liberty of speech is a privilege enjoyed in many eastern countries. The kings pay an uncommon deference to the complaints of their meanest subjects; and many instances are given where the most ferocious tyrants have borne, without resentment, the severest truths, and the keenest sarcasms, when delivered with a bold spirit and a ready wit. We shall transcribe one example, as it is short; it is mentioned by Mr. Richardson, when speaking of the veneration for ideots in the East. 'A real or affected fool, during the reign of Khalif Arashid, in the eighth century, had the presumption to call himself God Almighty. The khalif thinking him an impostor, ordered him to be brought before him, and that he might discover the truth, he said to him: "A fellow the other day who assumed the manners of an ideot, pretended to be a prophet of God. I had him immediately tried, when his imposture appearing evident, I commanded his head to be struck off."—You did right, replied the fool, and like a faithful servant of mine; for I never gave that fellow a commission to be my prophet. The ready coolness of the answer left the khalif at a loss to decide; he inclined therefore to the merciful side, and the fool was dismissed.'

We shall now proceed to an examination of the second chapter of Mr. Richardson's performance, in which he considers more particularly Mr. Bryant's Analysis of ancient Mythology. In a former Review we took notice of Mr. Richardson's objection to the radicals or roots, from which this ingenious system has sprung. By deriving words which denote the names and places in the East from these radicals, all of which have relation to the sun, Mr. Bryant has endeavoured to trace the journey of a people whom he calls Cuthites; who, he says, overspread a great part of the earth, and whose travels and history forms the principal subject of his voluminous work. Mr. Richardson observed that the names deduced from these radicals were derived according to the rules, not of oriental but of Grecian analogy; that letters were considered as the same, which in all eastern languages are held to be *uninterchangeable*, and therefore the names could have no relation to the radicals; this he proved by a great variety of examples; and seemed sincerely to regret that Mr. Bryant had thrown away a great deal of ingenious labour in building a system, of which the smallest acquaintance with eastern tongues destroys the foundation. Mr. Bryant, in his Apology, does not attempt to refute the objection, but says that Mr. Richardson has not read, or does not understand,

his Analysis; accuses him of ignorance of logic, and of language; and compares his Persian stories to Mother Goose's Tales. Indeed he indulges throughout his whole Apology a vein of pleasantry at Mr. Richardson's expence, which one would not have expected from a man of such profound erudition. However, as Mr. Richardson observes, 'he is sometimes a little sad: something like an April day; now raining, now shining; laughing with one eye and crying with the other.' Mr. Bryant asserts, 'that although his etymological system might be found contrary to truth, the history would speak for itself; and without these helps be authenticated;' and he challenges his adversary to a fuller examination of his performance. The latter accepts the challenge; and observes that upon re-examining his *System* at large, with more attention, what before seemed merely *improbable*, he now conceives, upon Mr. Bryant's own grounds, to be irreconcilable with the sacred writings; to be unsupported by reason; to be inconsistent with itself. In a word, to be *impossible*.

In order to support these positions, Mr. Richardson, who wishes to address himself to the common sense of general readers, whose line of study may not have led them to oriental pursuits, arranges his observations under different heads. The etymological disquisitions, which some part of the subject requires, are thus separated from the rest, which depends on observations and arguments altogether foreign from eastern tongues. He begins, in section 2, by considering the inconsistencies in the chronology of the Analysis. Chronological accuracy ought to form the groundwork of every rational historical deduction: and ought to have been an object of peculiar attention to Mr. Bryant, 'whose system was to reform all former systems; to render superfluous every future system; and to clear up the perplexing difficulties which had so long embarrassed our greatest chronologers.' Mr. Bryant likewise tells us, 'that his book was to be the basis of history, the standard of criticism, and the guide to the studies of youth.' Yet Mr. Richardson observes, that this learned gentleman has adhered to no regular standard of chronology. He has taken the range of many volumes; and his extracts are copious. But their jarring chronologies he seems to have followed without reflection; and to have involved himself in a labyrinth of perplexity, which makes him at variance with the Bible, with its versions, and with himself. That the reader may judge how far he has proved these points, we shall insert the passage at large.

By the Hebrew Bible, the Deluge happened in the year of the Creation 1656: by the Septuagint, in 2262: and both agree in fixing the division of the earth to the days of Peleg.

The migration of the posterity of Noah to the different regions assigned to them by divine appointment, the learned gentleman labours to prove, as the leading point of his system, to have been an event prior to the Babel dispersion. And this migration, on the authority of Eusebius, he has placed in the year of the world 2672, when Noah was 930 years old. But in another place, transcribing from Epiphanius, he supposes Noah to have resided with his posterity, before the migration 659 years, in the neighbourhood of Mount Ararat, where the ark is said to have rested after the Deluge. These facts and dates he considers as undisputed; he reasons from them, and makes them the groundwork of his subsequent positions.

Now let us try their validity. And first, by the chronology of the Hebrew Bible. The Flood, as before observed, happened in the year 1656; Noah, being then 600 years of age. He lived afterwards 350 years, and died in the year 2006. Peleg, in whose days the earth is declared by Moses to have been divided, was born in the year 1757; and died in 1996. But, according to the calculations adopted by the learned gentleman, the division, instead of being in the life-time of those two patriarchs, could not take place till 666 years after the death of Noah; and 676 after the death of Peleg. Whilst, in the other passage, as quoted from Epiphanius, a still greater impossibility is supposed: for Noah is there said to have been alive 659 years after the deluge; which would not only postpone the migration 249 years later than 2672, which he had already determined upon, but extend Noah's life to 1259 years; although every concurring authority makes the sum of his age to have been only 950.

Let us now consider these positions by the Septuagint chronology. Noah, at the era of the flood, which is fixed by the chief copies of that version to the year 2262, was, as above noticed, 600 years old; to which, if we add the 350 years he lived after it, he must have died in the year 2612, sixty years before the migration, instead of being alive twenty years afterwards. Whilst Peleg, not having been born, agreeable to the Septuagint, till the year 2794, the migration, according to the date the learned gentleman has followed, must have taken place 122 years before his existence.

But, however inconsistent he might have been with all the chronologies of the sacred writings; a conformity with himself might perhaps have been expected. But even this we do not find. I have neither time, inclination, nor room, to dwell upon many points. I shall only mention one. In his investigation of the Egyptian dynasties, he places the Exodus of the children of Israel, in the year before Christ 1494; (which is within about two years of our Bible chronology): their residence

In Egypt he computes at 215 years: the shepherd kings, whom he supposes to be Cuthites, ruled over Egypt 259 years; and were expelled 37 years before the settlement of Jacob and his sons. Now if these sums are added together, the Cuthite invasion must have been 2005 years before Christ: or (as he here goes by the Hebrew chronology) in the year of the world 1999; which is no fewer than 673 years before he, in another place, makes them, or any of the sons of Noah, to have moved from the spot where the ark rested after the flood. So that the three great objects of this elaborate work; the deluge, the migration, and the expeditions of the sons of Chus, are left, in a point of such importance as time, so wholly unsettled, as to vary in every circumstance: and to differ, in some, near 800 years.

On a future occasion we shall give an account of our author's ingenious observations concerning Mr. Bryant's theory of the dispersion: his examination of the Cuthite system; and his remarks upon Sanconiathon, Manetho, Berosus, and other writers cited by Mr. Bryant in defence of his opinions.

[ *To be continued.* ]

*Sonorum Doctrina rationalis et experimentalis, ex Newtoni, optimorumque Physicorum Scriptis, Methodo Elementaria congesta. Cui præmittitur Disquisitio de Aere et Modificationibus Atmosphæra. Auctore Guilielmo Hales, A. M. 4to. 6s. boards. Wallis.*

AS a proper introduction to the doctrine of sounds, Mr. Hales first treats of the nature of air. After defining it, from its phenomena, to be an elastic and compressible fluid, and therefore capable of occupying a greater or less space than it naturally possesses, he enumerates the various ways in which its expansive property has been accounted for. Richard and others think it is caused by a spiral or twisted form in the particles of the air; Pascal, &c. imagine it arises from an expansion of its parts after the manner of wool; while Euler, Bernouilli, and others, after Des Cartes, account for it by the centrifugal force of the subtle manner within bubbles of air, by the circular gyration of which a continual endeavour of expansion arises. But Newton thinks that the extremely great expansion of the air cannot be accounted for by these hypotheses, and suspects that the air consists of very subtle particles mutually flying from one another by forces reciprocally proportional to the distances of their centers; for it is demonstrable that a fluid composed of such particles will have its density and elasticity proportional to its compression, and its volume in the same proportion reciprocally; which property

is shewn by experiments to belong to the air, either accurately or very nearly, as was first discovered by Boyle and his disciple Townly, and confirmed by all observations and experiments to the present time. It must be confessed, however, that all the experiments have been made with air not varying greatly in density; and whether the property obtains when the density differs by many hundreds or thousands of times, is perhaps to be doubted, at least it has never been shewn by experiments. He then remarks some other properties of air, and shews that it may be compressed into a very small volume; for that it has been compressed into a space 13 times less than its natural bulk by Boyle, 60 times less by Halley, 300 times less by Richmann, and into 1551 times less by Hales; in which last case it would be of almost double the gravity of water, which is something more than 800 times the density of common air. But as to its expansion, it seems to be beyond all limits.—That besides real air, the terrestrial atmosphere contains vapours, exhalations, and other heterogeneous particles of bodies.—That all bodies expand with heat and contract with cold, but air in a greater degree than any other. Various degrees of expansion and elasticity with heat.—That the mean density of the air, at the surface of the earth, is to that of water, as 1 to 870 nearly. And that the whole pressure of the atmosphere is equal to a column of about  $5\frac{1}{2}$  miles high, of this mean density; but that the exact height cannot be computed because of the heterogeneous particles in the atmosphere.—He then asserts Halley's rule for computing the density of the air at any assigned altitude, viz. that while the altitudes increase in arithmetical progression, the densities decrease in geometrical progression; but several objections are brought to this rule, because it supposes the elasticity to be accurately as the compression, and that the degree of heat is every where the same.—This part of the work is then closed with some account of the method of estimating terrestrial altitudes and depressions by the height of the mercury in the barometer tube, which measures the pressure of the air. An ingenious method, and which may sometimes be useful.

The second part of the work treats of this very difficult subject, the pulses of the air caused by the tremulous motion of sonorous bodies. Having described the terms relating to, and the properties of these pulses, he explains Newton's solution of this problem: 'Given the density of the air and the elastic force, to find the velocity of a pulse.' The solution of this problem from theory, determines the velocity of sound to be about 1000 feet per second of time. But on account of the

vapours contained in the air, the number ought perhaps to be increased nearly to 1142, what it has been found to be by experiments.

The third part treats expressly on the doctrine of sounds. He defines sound to be pulses of air propagated by the vibrations of tremulous bodies, and thence conveyed to the tympanum of the ear. From experiments with pneumatical machines, and from thunder or the firing of guns at the tops and bottoms of mountains, he shews that air is necessary to sound; that sounds are not heard from a vacuum; and that they are more or less intense according to the density of the air.—He then explains the effect of sound in musical chords. And shews that sound is not produced by a loco-motion in the air like to wind, as it does not affect the flame of a candle, &c. placed near the sonorous body.

Mr. Hales assigns the fourth part to what he calls the phenomena of sounds. He here shews, that sound diffuses itself equally in all directions.—That the force or intensity of sound decreases in the duplicate ratio as the distances increase.—That sound is audible at various distances according to its own intensity, and other concomitant circumstances, which being various and numerous, the utmost limits are not known, but that the firing of cannon has been heard to the distance of 200 miles.—That the velocity of sound is about 1142 feet in a second, varying a very little from this number, either more or less, according to winds, heat and cold, &c.—That the mean velocity of the wind, as from 10 to 15 miles an hour, and that the greatest velocity hardly exceeds 60. While that of sound is near 800 miles in the same time. So different are the two motions!—He then again treats of the determination of distances by the velocity of sound.—Of vibrating chords, and musical sounds in general. Shewing that tones are more grave or more acute, as the vibrations of the sonorous bodies are slower or quicker.—Of wind instruments, pipes, trumpets (for the mouth and ear), whispering domes.—From Newton's *Arithmetica Universalis*, prob. 50, is delivered the solution of this problem; To find the depth of a well, from the return of the sound of a stone let fall and striking the bottom of it.—Finally it is shewn that sound is transmitted from one medium into another.

The next part treats of reflex sounds or echos. Of these Mr. Hales describes the properties, and relates accounts of some of the most remarkable ones in different parts of the world. As reflex sounds fly with the same velocity as the direct or primitive ones, he remarks an easy method of determining the distance of an object from the time in which it returns

returns a sound: thus, Mr. Derham, from the side of the river Thames, found the echo of his voice returned from an object on the opposite bank in 3 seconds of time; therefore found it flew twice the breadth of the river in 3 seconds, or once the breadth in three half seconds; hence three-halves of 1142, that is 1713 feet was the breadth of the river at that place.--- He then concludes this part with an enumeration of many similar laws or effects observed between sound and light, shewing the great analogy existing between them.

To the foregoing parts is subjoined an Appendix, containing the 47th and 49th propositions of the 2d book of sir Isaac Newton's Principia, relating to the motion of sound, with some explanatory notes.

Lastly, we find large illustrations of all the foregoing parts of the work. These consist chiefly of extracts from the many authors who have written on the subjects here treated of; and they are adduced as proof or as explanations of the corresponding theorems and doctrines laid down in the work, and which respectively refer to them for that purpose.

Such is the out-line of this performance; in which Mr. Hales does not pretend to new discoveries in the subject; but founds the merit of it in having collected the several doctrines together, and digested them into an elementary and systematical form for the use of young students.

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*Travels through the Interior Parts of North America, in the Years 1766, 1767, and 1768. By J. Carver, Esq. Illustrated with Copper-plates. 8vo. 7s. 6d. in boards. Crowder.*

THE interior parts of America are hitherto so little known, that the public cannot fail of being interested in the description of them, when the account appears to be written by a judicious and faithful observer. To this favourable character the author now before us seems to be justly entitled; at the same time that he merits the praise of having undertaken his researches with the view of contributing to the commercial advantage of his country. When the author formed the project of visiting the unexplored regions of the American continent, he was aware that a variety of causes concurred to obstruct the successful execution of his design. While the French retained their power in North America, they had taken every possible method to keep all other nations, especially the British, in ignorance of the interior parts of it. For this purpose, we are told that they had published inaccurate maps, and false accounts relating to the state of the country. As an instance.

of

of the misrepresentations propagated by the French, Mr. Carver mentions Crown-Point, which, before its reduction in 1759, had been reputed an impregnable fortress; but no sooner was it taken, than we were convinced of the falsehood of those reports by which its strength had been exaggerated. The author acknowledges that some maps of those countries have been published by the French with some appearance of accuracy; but these are executed on so small a scale as hardly to prove of any use.

Mr. Carver informs us, that his principal object in exploring the recesses of America, was to ascertain the breadth of that vast continent, from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, in the place of its greatest extent, or that part of it which lies between 43 and 46 degrees of north latitude. Had he been able to accomplish this design, he intended proposing to government to establish a port in some of those parts about the Straits of Annian, which having been first discovered by sir Francis Drake, of course belong to the English. This step, he was convinced, would greatly facilitate the discovery of a north-west passage, or a communication between Hudson's Bay and the Pacific Ocean; besides which, he was of opinion that a settlement on this extremity of America would answer many other good purposes, by promoting useful discoveries, and disclosing new sources of trade.

In June 1766, the traveller set out from Boston, in the province of Massachusetts, and proceeded by way of Albany and Niagara to Michillimackinac; a fort situated between the lakes Huron and Michigan, and distant from the place of his departure thirteen hundred miles. This fort, we are told, is composed of a strong stockade, and is usually defended by a garrison of a hundred men.

Fort La Bay stands on the southern extremity of a bay in Lake Michigan; termed by the French the Bay of Puants, but by the English the Green Bay. This fort also is surrounded only by a stockade, and being much decayed, is hardly defensible against small arms; neither at present is any garrison kept in it. The adjoining country, however, is said to be very fertile and pleasant. The following description of some of the most sequestered parts in America may afford satisfaction to our readers.

On the first of November, I arrived at Lake Pepin, which is rather an extended part of the river Mississippi, that the French have thus denominated, about two hundred miles from the Ouisconsin. The Mississippi below this lake flows with a gentle current, but the breadth of it is very uncertain, in some places it being upwards of a mile, in others not more than a quar-

quarter. This river has a range of mountains on each side throughout the whole of the way; which in particular parts approach near to it, in others lie at a greater distance. The land betwixt the mountains, and on their sides, is generally covered with grass, with a few groves of trees interspersed, near which large droves of deer and elk are frequently seen feeding. In many places pyramids of rocks appeared, resembling old ruinous towers; at others amazing precipices: and what is very remarkable, whilst this scene presented itself on one side, the opposite side of the same mountain was covered with the finest herbage, which gradually ascended to its summit. From thence the most beautiful and extensive prospect that imagination can form opens to your view. Verdant plains, fruitful meadows, numerous islands, and all these abounding with a variety of trees that yield amazing quantities of fruit, without care or cultivation, such as the nut-tree, the maple which produces sugar, vines loaded with rich grapes, and plum-trees bending under their blooming burdens, but above all, the fine river flowing gently beneath and reaching as far as the eye can extend, by turns attract your admiration and excite your wonder.

The lake is about twenty miles long and near six in breadth; in some places it is very deep, and abounds with various kinds of fish. Great numbers of fowl frequent also this lake and rivers adjacent, such as storks, swans, geese, brants, and ducks: and in the groves are found great plenty of turkeys and partridges. On the plains are the largest buffaloes of any in America. Here I observed the ruins of a French factory, where it is said captain St. Pierre resided, and carried on a very great trade with the Naudowessies, before the reduction of Canada.

About sixty miles below this Lake is a mountain remarkably situated; for it stands by itself exactly in the middle of the river, and looks as if it had slid from the adjacent shore into the stream. It cannot be termed an island, as it rises immediately from the brink of the water to a considerable height. Both the Indians and the French call it the mountain in the river.

One day having landed on the shore of the Mississippi, some miles below Lake Pepin, whilst my attendants were preparing my dinner, I walked out to take a view of the adjacent country. I had not proceeded far, before I came to a fine, level, open plain, on which I perceived, at a little distance, a partial elevation that had the appearance of an intrenchment. On a nearer inspection I had greater reason to suppose that it had really been intended for this many centuries ago. Notwithstanding it was now covered with grass, I could plainly discern that it had once been a breast-work of about four feet in height, extending the best part of a mile and sufficiently capacious to cover five thousand men. Its form was somewhat circular, and its flanks reached to the river. Though much defaced by time, every angle

angle was distinguishable, and appeared as regular, and fashioned with as much military skill, as if planned by Vauban himself. The ditch was not visible, but I thought on examining more curiously, that I could perceive there certainly had been one. From its situation also, I am convinced that it must have been designed for this purpose. It fronted the country and the rear was covered by the river; nor was there any rising ground for a considerable way that commanded it: a few straggling oaks were alone to be seen near it. In many places small tracks were worn across it by the feet of the elks and deer, and from the depth of the bed of earth by which it was covered, I was able to draw certain conclusions of its great antiquity. I examined all the angles and every part with great attention, and have often blamed myself since, for not encamping on the spot, and drawing an exact plan of it. To shew that this description is not the offspring of a heated imagination, or the chimerical tale of a mistaken traveller, I find on enquiry since my return, that Mons. St. Pierre and several traders have, at different times, taken notice of similar appearances, on which they have formed the same conjectures, but without examining them so minutely as I did. How a work of this kind could exist in a country that has hitherto (according to the general received opinion) been the seat of war to untutored Indians alone, whose whole stock of military knowledge has only, till within two centuries, amounted to drawing the bow, and whose only breast-work even at present is the thicker, I know not. I have given as exact an account as possible of this singular appearance, and leave to future explorers of these distant regions to discover whether it is a production of nature or art. Perhaps the hints I have here given might lead to a more perfect investigation of it, and give us very different ideas of the ancient state of realms that we at present believe to have been from the earliest period only the habitations of savages.

The author afterwards introduces us to the Naudowessies Indians, who consist at present of eleven bands, or tribes. During his short stay among this people, a dispute happened between them and the Chipéway Indians; when the chiefs of the former applied to Mr. Carver, requesting that he would put himself at their head, and lead them out to oppose the enemy. As he had reason to be apprehensive of his personal security, should he incur the resentment of either nation, he wisely resolved, in this dilemma, to pursue the middle course. For this purpose he desired that the Naudowessies would permit him to meet the enemy, and offer them terms of an amicable accommodation. At first they rejected the proposal, upon a supposition confirmed by many trials, that any pacific negotiation would be vain; but they afterwards consented, though not without reluctance, to the experiment. Of Mr. Car-

Carver's success in his mediatorial capacity we meet with the following narrative, which represents the Indians as less ferocious and implacable than is generally imagined.

Taking, says he, my Frenchman with me, who could speak their language, I hastened towards the place where the Chipéways were supposed to be. The Naudowessies during this kept at a distance behind. As I approached them with the pipe of peace, a small party of their chiefs, consisting of about eight or ten, came in a friendly manner towards me; with whom, by means of my interpreter, I held a long conversation; the result of which was, that their rancour being by my persuasions in some measure mollified, they agreed to return back without accomplishing their savage purposes. During our discourse I could perceive as they lay scattered about, that the party was very numerous, and many of them armed with muskets.

Having happily succeeded in my undertaking, I returned without delay to the Naudowessies, and desired they would instantly remove their camp to some other part of the country, lest their enemies should repent of the promise they had given, and put their intentions in execution. They accordingly followed my advice and immediately prepared to strike their tents. Whilst they were doing this they loaded me with thanks; and when I had seen them on board their canoes I pursued my route.

To this adventure I was chiefly indebted for the friendly reception I afterwards met with from the Naudowessies of the Plains, and for the respect and honours I received during my abode among them. And when I arrived many months after at the Chipéway village, near the Ottowaw lakes, I found that my fame had reached that place before me. The chiefs received me with great cordiality, and the elder part of them thanked me for the mischief I had prevented. They informed me, that the war between their nation and the Naudowessies had continued without interruption for more than forty winters. That they had long wished to put an end to it, but this was generally prevented by the young warriors of either nation, who could not restrain their ardour when they met. They said, they should be happy if some chief of the same pacific disposition as myself, and who possessed an equal degree of resolution and coolness, would settle in the country between the two nations; for by the interference of such a person an accommodation, which on their parts they sincerely desired, might be brought about.

About thirty miles below the Falls of St. Anthony, we are told there is a remarkable cave of an amazing depth, which the Indians term Wakon-teebe, or the Dwelling of the Great Spirit. The entrance is about ten foot wide, and the height five foot. The arch within is near fifteen foot high, and about thirty

thirty broad. At the distance of near twenty foot from the entrance begins a lake, of unsearchable extent, the water of which is transparent. Upon the walls the traveller observed many Indian hieroglyphics, which were cut in a rude manner, and appeared to be very ancient. A little hence is situated the burying place of several bands of the Naudowessie Indians; who, though they have no fixed residence, and live but a few months on one spot, bring hither, at certain periods, the bodies of their deceased friends.

Our author informs us, that full fifty miles before he reached the Falls of St. Anthony, he could distinctly hear the noise of the water, which forms a most beautiful cataract above two hundred and fifty yards over. The water falls perpendicularly about thirty foot; and the rapids below, in the space of three hundred yards more, render the descent considerably greater; so that when viewed at a distance, the falls seem considerably higher than they really are. In the middle of the fall stands a small island, and the adjacent country is said to be exceeding beautiful.

We find that our author explored the Mississippi as far as the river St. Francis, whither only father Hennipin had penetrated before him; but for any account of the parts to the northward of this boundary, we must yet remain indebted to the information of the Indians. By this channel, assisted with his own observations, Mr. Carver has learned, that the four most capital rivers on the continent of North America, viz. the St. Lawrence, the Mississippi, the river Bourbon, and the Oregon, or the River of the West, have their sources in the same neighbourhood. The waters of the three former are within thirty miles of each other; but the latter is more towards the west. Our author affirms, upon his own observation, that as he passed to the westward of the Mississippi, he found the winter far from being severe; and that the north-west winds which blow on those countries, are considerably more temperate than he had often experienced them near the coast of our American colonies. In delineating those immense tracts of territory which has hitherto been unexplored by any European traveller, the author entertains us with the description of various lakes and mountains of amazing extent.

That range of mountains, says he, of which the Shining Mountains are a part, begin at Mexico, and continuing northward on the back, or to the east of California, separate the waters of those numerous rivers that fall either into the Gulph of Mexico, or the Gulph of California. From thence continuing their course still northward, between the sources of the Mississippi and the rivers that run into the South Sea, they appear to end  
in

In about forty-seven or forty-eight degrees of north latitude; where a number of rivers arise, and empty themselves either into the South Sea, into Hudson's Bay, or into the waters that communicate between these two seas.

Among these mountains, those that lie to the west of the river St. Pierre, are called the Shining Mountains, from an infinite number of crystal stones, of an amazing size, with which they are covered, and which, when the sun shines full upon them, sparkle so as to be seen at a very great distance.

This extraordinary range of mountains is calculated to be more than three thousand miles in length, without any very considerable intervals, which I believe surpasses any thing of the kind in the other quarters of the globe. Probably in future ages they may be found to contain more riches in their bowels, than those of Indostan and Malabar, or that are produced on the Golden Coast of Guinea; nor will I except even the Peruvian mines. To the west of these mountains, when explored by future Columbuses or Raleighs, may be found other lakes, rivers, and countries, full fraught with all the necessaries or luxuries of life; and where future generations may find an asylum, whether driven from their country by the ravages of lawless tyrants, or by religious persecutions, or reluctantly leaving it to remedy the inconveniences arising from a superabundant increase of inhabitants; whether, I say, impelled by these, or allured by hopes of commercial advantages, there is little doubt but their expectations will be fully gratified in these rich and unexhausted climes.

Lake Erie, we are informed, is prodigiously infested with the water-snake. Of this kind the most remarkable species is the hissing-snake, which is about eighteen inches long, and speckled. When any thing approaches, it flattens itself immediately, and its spots, which are of various colours, become considerably brighter through rage. On this occasion, it discharges from its mouth, with great force, a subtle vapour, which is said to be of a nauseous smell; and if inhaled with the breath, will infallibly bring on a decline, which proves mortal in a few months; no remedy being hitherto discovered to counteract its noxious tendency.

The narrative of the author's Travels is succeeded by a number of observations recited in different chapters, on the origin, persons, manners, customs, government, and religion of the Indians; with all which Mr. Carver appears to be particularly well acquainted. The following character of the Indians being concisely delineated, and strongly marked, we have extracted for the perusal of our readers.

The character of the Indians, like that of other uncivilized nations, is composed of a mixture of ferocity and gentleness. They are at once guided by passions and appetites, which they hold

hold in common with the fiercest beasts that inhabit their woods, and are possessed of virtues which do honour to human nature.

‘ In the following estimate I shall endeavour to forget on the one hand the prejudices of Europeans, who usually annex to the word Indian epithets that are disgraceful to human nature, and who view them in no other light than as savages and cannibals; whilst with equal care I avoid any partiality towards them, as some must naturally arise from the favourable reception I met with during my stay among them.

‘ At the same time I shall confine my remarks to the nations inhabiting only the western regions, such as the Naudowessies, the Ottogamies, the Chipéways, the Winnebagoes, and the Saukies: for as throughout that diversity of climates the extensive continent of America is composed of, there are people of different dispositions and various characters, it would be incompatible with my present undertaking to treat of all these, and to give a general view of them as a conjunctive body.

‘ That the Indians are of a cruel, revengeful, inexorable disposition, that they will watch whole days unmindful of the calls of nature, and make their way through pathless, and almost unbounded woods, subsisting only on the scanty produce of them, to pursue and revenge themselves of an enemy; that they hear unmoved the piercing cries of such as unhappily fall into their hands, and receive a diabolical pleasure from the tortures they inflict on their prisoners, I readily grant; but let us look on the reverse of this terrifying picture, and we shall find them temperate both in their diet and potations (it must be remembered, that I speak of those tribes who have little communication with Europeans) that they withstand, with unexampled patience, the attacks of hunger, or the inclemency of the seasons, and esteem the gratification of their appetites, but as a secondary consideration.

‘ We shall likewise see them sociable and humane to those whom they consider as their friends, and even to their adopted enemies; and ready to partake with them of the last morsel, or to risk their lives in their defence.

‘ In contradiction to the report of many other travellers, all of which have been tinged with prejudice, I can assert, that notwithstanding the apparent indifference with which an Indian meets his wife and children after a long absence, an indifference proceeding rather from custom than insensibility, he is not unmindful of the claims either of connubial or parental tenderness.—

‘ Accustomed from their youth to innumerable hardships, they soon become superior to a sense of danger or the dread of death; and their fortitude implanted by nature, and nurtured by example, by precept, and accident, never experiences a moment's alloy.

‘ Though

Though slothful and inactive whilst their store of provision remains unexhausted, and their foes are at a distance, they are indefatigable and persevering in pursuit of their game, or in circumventing their enemies.

If they are artful and designing, and ready to take every advantage, if they are cool and deliberate in their councils, and cautious in the extreme either of discovering their sentiments, or of revealing a secret, they might at the same time boast of possessing qualifications of a more animated nature, of the sagacity of a hound, the penetrating sight of a lynx, the cunning of the fox, the agility of a bounding roe, and the unconquerable fierceness of the tyger.

In their public characters, as forming part of a community, they possess an attachment for that band to which they belong, unknown to the inhabitants of any other country. They combine, as if they were actuated only by one soul, against the enemies of their nation, and banish from their minds every consideration opposed to this.

They consult without unnecessary opposition, or without giving way to the excitements of envy or ambition, on the measures necessary to be pursued for the destruction of those who have drawn on themselves their displeasure. No selfish views ever influence their advice, or obstruct their consultations. Nor is it in the power of bribes or threats to diminish the love they bear their country.

The honour of their tribe, and the welfare of their nation, is the first and most predominant emotion of their hearts; and from hence proceed in a great measure all their virtues and their vices. Actuated by this, they brave every danger, endure the most exquisite torments, and expire triumphing in their fortitude, not as a personal qualification, but as a national characteristic,

From thence also flow that insatiable revenge towards those with whom they are at war, and all the consequent horrors that disgrace their name. Their uncultivated minds being incapable of judging of the propriety of an action, in opposition to their passions which are totally insensible to the controuls of reason or humanity, they know not how to keep their fury within any bounds, and consequently that courage and resolution which would otherwise do them honour, degenerates into a savage ferocity.

But this short dissertation must suffice; the limits of my work will not permit me to treat the subject more copiously, or to pursue it with a logical regularity. The observations already made by my readers on the preceding pages, will, I trust, render it unnecessary; as by them they will be enabled to form a tolerably just idea of the people I have been describing. Experience teaches, that anecdotes, and relations of particular events, however trifling they might appear, enable us to form a truer judgment of the manners and customs of a people, and are

much more declaratory of their real state, than the most studied and elaborate disquisition, without these aids.'

To his account of the Indians Mr. Carver has subjoined a short vocabulary of the Chipéway and Naudowessie languages; in the former of which, we are told, they have not either of the consonants F or V. The animal and vegetable productions of the Indian nations are afterwards described: and in an Appendix the author treats of the probability and means of rendering the interior parts of North America commercial colonies; and of the discovery of a north west passage.—The laudable motives from which Mr. Carver undertook his travels in North America deserve the warmest commendation; and as he appears to have prosecuted his researches with great industry, as well as faithfully related them, we hope he will experience some degree of compensation for so voluntary and perhaps consequential an exertion in the service of the public.

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*The Present State of the West Indies: containing an accurate Description of what Parts are possessed by the several Powers in Europe. Illustrated with a complete Map of the West Indies. 4to. 3s. sewed. Baldwin.*

BY the change introduced at the last peace, respecting the property of several of the West India islands, the accounts of them formerly published have been rendered in a great measure obsolete; and to remedy this defect is the design of the present treatise. With the history and accurate description of each of the islands, the author gives a detail of their trade, inhabitants, strength, government, and religion. For the gratification of our readers we select the account of Dominica, the late seizure of which by the French has rendered it particularly an object of public attention.

Dominica, between Martinico and Guadalope, was discovered by Columbus, the 3d of November, 1493, and called after the Sunday which happened on that day. Its length is 8 leagues and  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; its greatest breadth in the middle about four. It is certainly one of the best islands in the West Indies, and, after Jamaica, the most important, perhaps, of those belonging to England. Its appearance is rugged and mountainous, especially towards the sea; but the ascents are commonly easy, which makes their cultivation less difficult, and the inner part contains very rich vallies with several fine plains. The soil, in general, is a black deep mold, extremely fertile, which soon repays abundantly the labours of the planter. The island, watered by a great number of rivers full of fish, and favourable

able to the plantations, has several that are navigable for some miles distance from the sea. The climate is remarkably hot even for this part of the world, though the air is pure and very thin, which circumstance has given the country the reputation of being healthy. Among the mountains we find one where the French imagine there is a gold mine, and two others towards the south, which are called "Souffrieres," from the plenty of sulphur they contain; these seem to be volcanos either just rising or ready to be extinguished. There are besides several springs of mineral waters, whose virtues are extolled for several disorders.

One of the great advantages of Dominica arises from the variety of the aspects of its excellent soil, which is such that one may cultivate with ease and certainty, not only all the productions growing in the other islands, but likewise the greater part of the plants and trees of the West India continent. At present its forests afford an inexhaustible fund of timber of all sorts and for all uses; among them we find a great quantity of rose-wood, so esteemed by the cabinet-makers. The island abundantly produces what is called in these parts ground-provisions, such as bananas, potatoes, and manioc, from which the cassada bread is made, which serves for food to the Negroes, and even to a great number of Europeans. All kinds of vegetables grow there in profusion, and among the number of its rich fruits are distinguished the ananas, which passes for the most delicious in the islands. It abounds in hogs, both tame and wild, in game and fowls; these articles, with other provisions, before the cession, made the principal trade of its inhabitants with Martinico.

The island, properly speaking, has no harbours, but there is safe and convenient anchorage in the bays and coves, which indent the whole coast; the principal of these, deep, capacious, and sandy, lies on the north-west, and is named after Prince Rupert who formerly anchored there with his fleet. The surrounding mountains shelter it from most winds, and it becomes so much the more important to Great Britain, as Dominica being situated in the middle of the French islands, a fleet lying in Prince Rupert's Bay could easily interrupt all their trade: on this bay, between the shore and its salt-works, has been traced out the plan of a new town, which is to be called Portsmouth. Dominica is divided into ten parishes, seven to leeward, and three to windward. On the leeward coast is the capital, composed of two small towns, one to the north called Le Roseau, and the other to the south called Charlotte-Town. The Caribbs, formerly very numerous in this island, are now

reduced to a few families, settled in a little district towards the north-east.

The account of the several islands is clear and copious, and appears to be compiled from the best authorities.

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*A Tour through the Island of Great Britain. Divided into Circuits or Journies. The Eighth Edition, with great additions and improvements. 4 vols. 12mo. 14s. Rivington.*

**T**HIS Tour has for many years been particularly distinguished by the public favour; but the present edition has received such considerable improvements, that it may be considered as almost a new work. Not only Scotland and the principality of Wales are now described with far more copiousness than formerly, but great additions have also been made to the delineation of the several counties in England. Though in the execution of the work, the accounts of the latest and most approved travellers are frequently adopted, these are not the only channels by which the editors have derived the multiplicity of their information; for we find that they have received no small assistance from literary and intelligent correspondents in various parts of the kingdom.

Among the numerous improvements in this edition, is the account of the Scilly Islands, or the ancient Cassiterides, situated due west from the Lizard Point. The most noted of these are twenty-seven, the names of which, with the number of acres they severally contain, are specified. The narrative afterwards thus proceeds.

‘ St. Mary’s is the largest of the Scilly islands, containing as many houses and inhabitants as all the rest. Its greatest length is about two miles and a half, middlemost breadth almost one and a half, and may be reckoned betwixt nine and ten miles in circumference.

‘ The hills are rocky, rising in some places to a great height, and are enriched with mineral stores. The valleys are fertile, and the fields, like those in Cornwall, are inclosed with stone hedges. Also the healthy plains and turfy downs, in several places of this island, afford their use and pleasure. The highest land yields a prospect of England in a clear day, and of ships going out and returning at the mouths of the channels. Here is also morafs-ground, in two parts of this island, called the Upper and Lower Moors, which supply the cattle with water in dry seasons; in the upper of which, the farthest from Hugh-town, is a pretty large and deep lake.

‘ About

About two furlongs from Hugh-town, the capital of St. Mary's, to the eastward, is a curious sandy bay, called Pomelin, where the beach, from the mark of flood to the mark of ebb, is covered with an exceeding fine writing sand, and of which ship loads may be gathered at low water. On account of its plenty and brightness, it is fetched by the inhabitants for sanding their houses in Hugh-town, and other parts of this island; and presents of it are made to many parts of England, as a curiosity.

The greatest curiosities observed in St. Mary's, are the rocks of Peninnis, and a subterraneous passage near them, whose entrance is called Piper's Hole. This passage is said to communicate under ground with the island of Tresco, as far as the north-west cliffs or banks of it, where another cavity is seen, that goes by the same name with the former.

Going in at the orifice, at Peninnis banks in St. Mary's, it is above a man's height, and of as much space in its breadth; but grows lower and narrower farther in. A little beyond which entrance appear rocky basons or reservoirs, continually running over with fresh water, descending, as it distills, from the sides of the rocky passage: by the fall of water heard, farther in, it is probable there may be rocky descents in the passage: the drippings from the sides have worn the passage, as far as it can be seen, into very various angular surfaces.

St. Mary's Island is defended by a strong garrison situated upon the west part of it, overlooking the town and isthmus, and commanding the country that way and to the sea about the batteries, of which there are several strong ones, mounted with 64 pieces of cannon, some of 18 pounders. It also contains a company of soldiers, a master-gunner, and six other gunners, a store-house, with arms for arming 300 islanders, who are obliged to assist the military forces at the approach of an enemy; a guard-house, barracks, bridge, and strong gates; and, upon the summit of the hill, above a regular ascent, going from Hugh-town, stands his majesty's Star-castle, with ramparts and a ditch about it. This castle commands a prospect of all the islands and seas about them; from whence, in a fair day, are also beheld ships passing to and fro, and England, as though rising out of the sea, at a distance. Here the king's colours are hoisted, and appear conspicuous aloft, for ships to observe and obey coming in. The right honourable the lord Godolphin, who is also a proprietor, commands as governor of all the islands; and a lieutenant-governor is here commissioned to act under his lordship by his majesty, but not upon establishment. The captain of the company commands

in his lordship's and the lieutenant-governor's absence, who never reside there.

About a mile south-west of the south-part of St. Mary's garrison, lies St. Agnes Island; otherwise called the Light-house Island, upon which stands a very high and strong light-house, seen in the night at a great distance, by which ships going out of, or coming into, the two channels, avoid falling in with the rocks, lying thicker about this than any other of the Scilly islands. It is also of use to all coasting vessels crossing the channels. There is nothing particular in the soil of this island, different from the rest of the islands, (being, in that respect, very much alike,) nor of the dwellings, or description of places, except the light-keeper's habitation and employment, and a church in use for devotion.

About three miles and a half northerly of the most northern part of St. Agnes's Island, or two miles northerly from St. Mary's Kay, lies the island of Tresco, the capital town of which is called the Dolphin, (probably from Godolphin,) consisting of a church, and about half a score stone-built houses; and near the landing place of Tresco, in sight of New Grimsby Harbour, stands a dwelling called Tresco-palace. This formerly used to be a house of resort for masters of ships, and strangers coming to this island; but the custom has some time been altered to a house of better accommodation, farther up the island. Hereabouts are several scattered stone-built houses inhabited by labouring people.

About two miles from the northermost part of St. Mary's, or one from the eastermost part of Tresco, lies the island of St. Martin; upon the extremity of which, at the outermost part, stands a day-mark, next the coming in of Crow-sound, appearing, at a distance, as conspicuous by day, as the light-house upon St. Agnes, but is not altogether so high and large. It is built with rock-stone, round next the bottom, and tapering upwards. This serves to direct vessels crossing the channels, or coming into Scilly.

Almost half a mile from the west-side of Tresco Island, to the westward of the landing-place, lies the island of Bryer, which is inhabited by several families, some of a generous disposition, and persons of able circumstances.

Samphir, and many kinds of medicinal herbs, grow here, as in several of the other islands.

The number of people upon the island of St. Mary are about 700, including men, women, and children, and about as many in the islands of Tresco, St. Martin, Bryer, St. Agnes, and Sampson; in the last and smallest of which inhabited islands

Islands lives but one family, which goes to the places of worship in the other islands; here being no opportunity of public devotion, nor of communication, but by means of a boat.

• The men are loyal subjects, endowed with much natural strength of body and mind, giving proofs of their fortitude in bearing fatigues and hardships; are very good seamen and pilots, and want only an opportunity of education, to render themselves more useful subjects.

• The women are very dextrous in the use of the needle, and also in talents of good housewifery; nor do they want beauty, and other engaging qualities to recommend them.

• The air of these islands (says Mr. Campbell) is equally mild and pure; their winters are seldom subject to frost and snow. When the former happens, it lasts not long, and the latter never lies upon the ground. The heat of their summer is much abated by sea-breezes; they are indeed frequently incommoded by sea-fogs, but these are not unwholesome. Agues are rare, and fevers more so. The most fatal distemper is the small-pox; yet those who live temperately commonly survive to a great age, and are remarkably free from diseases.

• The soil is very good, and produces grain of all sorts, except wheat, of which they had anciently great quantities. They still grow a little; but the bread made of it is unpleasant. For this reason, they chiefly eat what is made of barley; and of this they have such abundance, that though they use it both for bread and beer, they have more than suffices for their own consumption. Potatoes is a new improvement; and they prosper to such a degree, that, in some places, they have two crops in a year. They have all sorts of roots; and pulse and sallads grow well. Dwarf fruit-trees, gooseberries, currants, raspberries, and every thing of that kind, under proper shelter, thrive exceedingly; but they have no tall trees. The ranuncula, anemone, and most kind of flowers, are successfully cultivated in their gardens. They have wild fowls of all sorts, from the swan to the snipe, and a particular kind called the hedge-chicken, which is not inferior to the ortolan. Tame fowl, puffins, and rabbits, in great number; their black clattle are generally small, but very well tasted, though they feed upon ore-wood: their horses are little, but strong and lively.

We have selected this specimen merely on account of its being detached; for in the more interesting parts of the work, the improvements are generally so closely interwoven with the materials of the former editions, as not to be disjoined. To the copious description of Britain afforded by this Tour, we may add, that it is furnished with two modern maps of England and Scotland, which illustrate the progress of the narrative.

*A Pocket of Prose and Verse: being a Selection from the Literary Productions of Alexander Kellet, Esq. Small 8vo. 3s. Dilly.*

THE first article in this miscellany is a letter concerning the American savages, in which the author discovers a considerable degree of philosophical reflexion. The second is, a notion of poetry. Here the writer draws a comparison between the different qualifications of poetry and prose, and throws out some general remarks on the nature of these compositions.

The harmony of verse, says he, the consequence of legitimate metre, is of more importance than is always conceived: few poets succeed who are negligent of it; and some, with scarcely any other merit than a strict attention thereto, have succeeded. The quantity of syllables is the time allowed for pronouncing them, a long one being equal to two short; and the English quantity is governed by the accent; the accented syllables being always long, and most others common. In poetry, the species of versification ascertains the mixture of long and short syllables; the smoothness or harshness of prose results also from the proper or improper arrangement of them, more particularly in the close of periods. A prosaic period has two pauses; one of the sense, which also makes the rythmus or numerosity, and coincides with the grammatic member of the period; and another of respiration, which operates only in long members, and answers to a cesure in verse. Prose periods should in general be much of the same, and that a middling length: a prose-speaker can accurately mark his intended rythmus. A poetic period has three pauses; one of versification; another of respiration, that makes the cesure, and sometimes is coincident with the third, which is the pause of sense. The English heroic verse is an iambic, that admits (advantageously to variety) in its first part of trochees, which are feet of the same time; but the last foot must constantly be an iamb; and the more iambs there are in a verse, the more melodious will it be found; in long poems, by way of relief to the ear, a short hypermetric (final) syllable may be sparingly used. The removal of the diction of a poem from prosaic language, has been constantly practised by the best poets of every nation; and the English have a considerable advantage, on account of the readiness with which their tongue naturalises those compound words that bestowed so much grace on the Greek poetry. The corruption and poverty of English prose is greatly owing to our poets, who have found it easier to decry and debase prose, than to raise their performances above it. No thought, if they are to be judges in their own cause, can be too trivial or anile for prose, no expression too vulgar or infantine; metaphor is to be excluded, and dissonance admitted; and if any ornament casually introduce itself, they immediately condemn it, by the sumptuary laws they themselves have forced

forced on the poor profators. Yet the most sagacious prose-writers, in all languages, have occasionally employed sublimity, figure, and numbers too, in their successful compositions; for the best thoughts may be ruined by base language, and hurt by harsh numerosity; and the metaphor, (the foundation of the simile, allegory, &c.) is of prose extraction, and originally the product of necessity; nay, the hyperbole itself, a dangerous figure, even in poetry, may be allowed to prose in the case of passion.

' In an age of ignorance an expedient turned up, that so obviously distinguished prose and poetry, as to lay claim for a time to constitute the essential of the last; and this was the Gothic invention of rhyme. A thing (to use the words of the first Englishman who durst reject this barbarian adjunct to verse, in his preface to *Paradise Lost*,) "of itself to all judicious ears trivial, and of no true musical delight; but much to the vexation and hinderance of modern poets, who are thereby constrained to express many things otherwise, and for the most part worse, than else they would have done." For though they be not wanting who would make the hitting-off rhymes an affair of genius, it is strictly a matter of memory; of which he who knows all the chiming words in a language must be a complete master; and Bysshe's rhyming dictionary is, with us, a very convenient supplement to less tenacious heads. Boileau, who in the vanity of youth asserted of rhyme,

"Au joug de la raison sans peine elle flechit,

"Et, lour de la gêner, la sert et l'enrichit."

in his old age confessed, that his secret in rhyming was, "to make the second verse before the first:" a sad shift truly! which only spoils the first line instead of the second; and besides, inevitably throws a poem into distichs, which rhyme of itself is but too apt to do.

The present age is generally considered as defective in poetical genius, but this author appears to entertain a very different opinion; for he expresses the most confident expectation, that whenever the taste for poetry revives, as sooner or later it *will*, justice shall then be done to the neglected merit of our contemporary poets, who shall become the delight and admiration of more attentive posterity. Though we cannot give much credit to the accomplishment of the latter part of this prediction, we agree with the author in the opinion he elsewhere intimates, that the exertion of poetical genius, as of every other, depends greatly upon the taste of the times.

These subjects are succeeded by a didactic poem, entitled, *Reason*, from which we find the author not destitute of a personal claim to the favour of the Muses. As a specimen of this poem we shall present our readers with the following extract.

' Native

' Native Augusta, from thy joys estrang'd,  
 Another world now my firm footsteps bears,  
 On other stars I gaze; and seas immense  
 Between us their tempestuous volumes roll.  
 Yet not thy golden luxuries I repine,  
 Thy glitt'ring pomps, or elegant delights;  
 Nor (what might justify regret) the loss  
 Of thy fair-features' daughters' matchless loves;  
 But the sagacious, but the free, discourse  
 Attain'd in thee, and no where else attain'd,  
 I weep in blood. O who'll convey me swift  
 To where another bridge thy better claim  
 To the wide-distant shore oppos'd presents,  
 And lightly placid father Thames bestrides;  
 Placid and level here, altho' in view  
 A gloomy pontifice, by British blood,  
 Ah, deep-distain'd, he scourge with torrent roar  
 Enrag'd? O when again the candid round,  
 Whose ample structure decks thy sumptuous skirt,  
 When shall I spaiate; blind to beauty's lure,  
 To soothing music deaf, attentive sole  
 To the more soothing eloquence of friends?  
 Chiefly to him by more than blood endear'd,  
 Whom friend I call, because I prove him such,  
 And but for vanity a brother name:  
 O form'd alike the battles dreadful edge  
 To credit, or instruct the letter'd sage,  
 Or lead the standard elegance of taste.

' Nor thou, tho' yet ambition thee detain  
 (Virtuous ambition in thy gen'rous breast)  
 Amid' the licens'd homicides of war  
 In tented noise, nor thou (my friend) decline  
 The proffer'd dalliance of the tuneful Muse;  
 The Muse, who still her ballanc'd wings suspends,  
 (Each sister of the mount her destin'd flight  
 Inseparably joins, and ev'ry grace,)  
 And fondly hovers o'er Britannia's cliffs,  
 Where tower'd her temples once, and altars blaz'd,  
 That blaze no more. For now she speeds dismay'd  
 Before the monster whose unnat'ral birth  
 Its parent Liberty, so lovely late,  
 Foully distorted; Int'rest nam'd by men,  
 But whom th' unerring gods Corruption call.  
 This syren from a hundred tongues harangues,  
 A hundred venal tongues, and smooths the path  
 With twice as many gold-polluted hands  
 To pow'r, (alas) and dignity, and wealth;  
 Ah, ill-acquir'd, ill-us'd, detested pow'r,  
 Infamous dignities, and wealth obscene.  
 With timid growth the pest at first advanc'd,

Ere

Ere long to spurn the ground, and scale the sky ;  
Then through three fertile realms her progress urg'd,  
On fairy foot, and eagle-rapid wing,  
And blasted ev'ry blessing she beheld.

‘ Where may the British muse her exile rest ?  
In frozen Greenland's subterranean towns,  
Or savage Lapland, her melodious song  
Might the wish'd sun at other months recal,  
And sooth the seal-furr'd semi-brutes to men ;  
In Albion tho' proscrib'd, ev'n welcome there.  
Will not her patience placidly await  
The rising empire in Atlantic surge  
Of renovated Britons, who proceed  
Lords of the world, and patrons of the lay ?  
Or shall she rather claim thy present aid,  
Accomplish'd Frederic, round whose regal brows  
The creeping ivy with the laurel vies ?

‘ O England, rich in soil, in wavy plains  
Of golden grain, and ever-verdant fields ;  
Rich in thy natives too, who best reflect  
Great nature's truths, with happy-temper'd minds ;  
Whose valour best the deadly-diff'ring climes  
Subdues, and kinds of widely vary'd men :  
For whom the western Indian steers his chace  
Thro' trackless lab'rins of perpetual wood,  
A living bronze, and sends the valu'd fur  
To dress authority for vulgar view :  
To whose superior genius Afric pays  
Her abject homage, and to sultry tasks  
Her salamander youth resigns, to tasks  
For which her sable sons alone suffice :  
Rouse, O my country, rouse your giant force ;  
And (as Anteus) stronger from your fall,  
Corruption's golden fetters burst ; nor spare  
The wily forc'ers ; but, with virtue steel'd,  
Dash on obdurate rocks her crackling limbs.  
Or with her blood your crimson'd oaks bedew.

‘ And now, ev'n now, breaks-forth a glimpse of hope ;  
While rev'rend pow'r, long us'd to scowl disp'as'd  
On Liberty's fair face, and still to loose  
The paricidal imp in civil strife  
Against her parent, takes the juster side,  
By virtuous eloquence at length convinc'd.

‘ Hither, O hither, bend your eager fight,  
Exulting Britons, what your boldest wish  
Durst not presage, the loan of heav'n behold,  
The people's minister ! whose cultur'd mind  
The super-human spark of genius warms ;  
His monarch's and his country's servant too,

Divided titles once, now found the same,  
 O, sons of Liberty, Britannia's sons;  
 O, patriots, friends to Brunswick's patriot house,  
 Assist his gen'rous toils, yourselves assist;  
 Second his great designs, plan'd else in vain!  
 ' Then Public-Spirit shall again uprear  
 In proud Augusta's palace-crouded towns  
 Its firm palladium; then, restor'd to wrath,  
 The British lion, with tremendous roar,  
 Shall hush discordant states to equal peace:  
 (While Gaul's pale colours play in bastion'd ports,  
 Nor longer sweep the blood-contested main:)  
 Rejected then no more, no more depress'd,  
 Genius shall second pow'r; and merit's self  
 Amid its painful blushes stand reveal'd;  
 Each languid science, ev'ry drooping art,  
 Shall rise into respect, and just reward;  
 Nor heav'n-descended Poetry the last.  
 Then each authentic bard again will seize  
 Promethean fire; again enraptur'd see  
 Nyséian Bacchus; then the style resume,  
 Fall'n from his hand (indignity to tell!)  
 Thro' torpid inattention of the times;  
 And recent chiefs, and patriots not of old,  
 And their fair deeds, else lost to those to come,  
 Snatch from th' oblivious tomb, with hoarse acclaim;  
 Nor shall, perchance, this verse escape its fame.'

The next division of the volume contains a number of aphoristical paragraphs, under the title of *Odd Thoughts*, where we meet with a variety of ingenious reflexions, sometimes fantastic, but generally evincing no small acuteness of observation.

We are afterwards presented with a succession of *Odes*, that afford farther proof of the author's poetical talents. These are on the Rebellion in 1745; On the Embarkation of the Lord-lieutenant of Ireland, in 1761; On placing Lord Romney's Portrait in the Great-Room of the Society for Encouragement of Arts and Commerce; To the Lyric Muse; On the Suicide of a Friend.

The reader's attention is next attracted by many ingenious papers on literary and moral subjects, under the following heads:—The Bruiser; Narrative of Good Spirits; Hypercriticisms; Lancashire Witches; Criticisms on a smaller Scale; Dialogue; Final Philosopher; Centuriomastic, or Martinetism; Unparalleled Suffering and Deliverance; Man, a Monster; Innocent Suicide; Letter from Switzerland; Subjects for Tragedies; Origin of Animalcular Distempers; English Duellist; Queries; Choice of a Profession; Dream.

From

From the title of this volume it seems to be a posthumous production; but bears the marks of so much merit, that, if published in the life-time of the author, it could not have failed to distinguish him by the possession of respectable literary abilities.

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*Prince Arthur : an Allegorical Romance. The Story from Spenser's Fairy Queen. Two Vols. 12mo. 6s. Riley.*

THE hero of this allegorical romance is taken from Spenser's Fairy Queen, where, under the character of prince Arthur, is depicted magnificence, or that greatness of soul which consists in the invariable practice of the moral virtues. The last six books of Spenser having been lost, the author of these volumes has endeavoured to supply the defect by lengthening the narrative from his own fancy; at the same time that he has made considerable alterations in various parts, to preserve uniformity, and bring the story to a regular conclusion. Though he has thus exercised both his invention and judgment, he has been careful to maintain the beauties of Spenser, as much as was possible in the transmutation of the poem into prose; but as the execution will best appear from a specimen, we shall lay before our readers an extract from the beginning of the romance.

' In the sixth century there lived a powerful queen, whose name was Gloriana: her fame extended throughout all the West, and she was not only beloved by her own subjects, but respected or feared by all the neighbouring powers. According to the custom of the age in which she flourished, she usually celebrated an annual feast, during which many gallant knights, came from all parts at once, to give proofs of their skill in chivalry, to behold the splendour of her court, and to enjoy the pleasures of the festival.

' On one of these occasions, a tall, well-shaped, but unpolished young stranger, presented himself before the queen, and, as the manner then was, craved of her a boon. During the feast it was not in her power to refuse supplications of this kind, such being then the rules of chivalry. The request of the stranger was, that he might be permitted to undertake the first adventure which should happen whilst the festival continued; for at this time the injured and distressed came from far to solicit her protection or assistance. This being granted by the queen, he immediately retired to some distance, and seated himself with great humility, on the ground; a situation that seemed most fitted to his uncourtly appearance.

‘ He had not remained there long, before a lovely lady, drest in mourning weeds, entered the court of the palace, mounted on a white afs; she was followed by a dwarf, leading a warlike steed, richly caparisoned, which bore the armour of a knight. Having alighted at the inner gate of the palace, she approached the throne with an air which declared her quality; and falling on her knees, informed the queen that her royal parents, after having long reigned the sovereigns of an extensive empire, had been confined, by a destructive dragon, many years in a brazen castle, to which they were obliged to retreat to avoid his fury: she then humbly besought Gloriana to commission one of her knights, of whose valour and prowess she was well assured, to attend her to this far distant country, that through him her parents might be restored to their kingdom.

‘ The young stranger, hearing this request, instantly arose, and again prostrating himself before the queen, claimed her promise, and begged that he might be permitted to undertake the adventure. Gloriana greatly wondered at the presumption of her unknown petitioner, as he seemed unused to arms; but, having before given her irrevocable promise, she readily confirmed it. The lady, also, prejudiced by his appearance, for some time refused to trust her cause in such unpromising hands, but he still continued his importunities with so much fervour, and assurance of success, that she at length told him, if the armour she had brought with her, would exactly suit him, (and unless it did so, he vainly flattered himself with succeeding in the enterprize) she would accept him for her knight. With unabated confidence the stranger submitted to the test; and being accoutered in it, and adorned with all the usual embellishments, he appeared the most graceful person in the whole company. The lady, astonished at the alteration in his manner and deportment, (for in a moment he seemed to have received a courtly polish) no longer refused to accept him for her champion: and after he had received the honour of knighthood, and the recreations of the festival were at an end, they took leave of the queen, and set out together on their journey, to the castle in which her royal parents were confined.

‘ The new-made knight wore upon his breast a bloody cross; the same device was also wrought upon his shield, as cognizances of his faith, and denoting the cause in which he was engaged. His port was now noble; and he gracefully bestrid his stately steed, which seemed impatient of the curb. Though he was equally unconscious of guilt or fear, yet a solemn sadness, unsuited to his years, had spread itself over his manly countenance, that could only be attributed to the im-

portance of his present undertaking ; for he had not only bound himself to release from their captivity the royal parents of his fair companion, but, like a true knight, he had resolved to avenge the cause of the injured, wherever he found them, and to redress every grievance that presented itself, as he proceeded.

‘ The lovely Una, for that was the lady’s name, rode by his side, upon her humble beast, leading, in a silken line, a milk-white lamb, an emblem of her own innocence. Equally pure was she herself ; nor was she unschooled in every virtuous lore ; yet a melancholy sat upon her brow, which shewed that some hidden care rankled in her heart. At a distance behind, impelled by no desires or fears, lagged her lazy dwarf, bearing on his back, such necessaries for the journey, as his strength would allow.

‘ One evening as they proceeded in this manner, beguiling the time with innocent and instructive converse, a gathering storm obliged them to seek for shelter in the covert of an adjacent grove, whose lofty trees, clad in all their summer’s pride, rendered it impervious to the tempest. The spacious paths and alleys, with which it was interspersed, appeared to be much trodden by the feet of men, and each of them to lead towards the centre ; but, unsuspicious of any danger, they drew no inferences from the observation. Pleased with the beauty of the place, and charmed with the music of the birds, of which an infinite number filled every spray, the knight and damsel forgot, for a moment, their more important concerns, and roved, enraptured, through many different avenues, admiring the beauties of the various trees which composed their asylum. The sailing pine, the cedar proud and tall, the vine-propped elm, the knotted oak king of the forest, the mourning cypress, the laurel meed of conquerors and poets, the weeping fir, the willow worn by love-lorn paramours, the yew obedient to the bender’s will, the myrrh sweet bleeding at each bitter wound, the fruitful olive, and the warlike beech, by turns attract their notice, and engage their admiration.

‘ Thus delightfully employed, they passed their time away till the blustering storm was overblown ; when, intending to pursue their journey, they sought to recover the plain from which they had been driven by it : but so many different paths and turnings presented themselves, that they were soon bewildered, and wandered still farther from the wished for track.’

In a work of this kind, it may be presumed that poetical embellishments will be often sacrificed to the less figurative nature of prose composition ; but if the narrative loses in point

point of ornament, it gains in that of perspicuity; and we doubt not that this romance will afford entertainment to those who would trace the luxuriant invention of Spenser, divested of the antiquity of his language.

## FOREIGN ARTICLES.

*Nouvelle Description du Cap de Bonne Esperance, avec un Journal historique d'un Voyage de Terre, fait par Ordre du Gouverneur feu Mgr. Ryk Tulbagh dans l'interieur de l'Afrique, par une Caravane de 85 Personnes sous le Commandement du Capitaine Henry Hop. 8vo. Amsterdam.*

THIS pretended new description of the Cape of Good Hope is almost entirely, and often literally, copied from that of Mr. La Caille, and contains a short and superficial account of the discovery of the Cape by the Portuguese in 1499; who were at first afraid to land there, but soon became more familiar, and rendered themselves odious by their cruelties; and of the landing of the Dutchman Van Riebeck in 1650, who succeeded much better in gaining the affections of the natives, and founding that colony, so highly interesting and beneficial to his countrymen. This account is succeeded by a short description of the clime, situation, town, bays, soil, settlements, &c. and the natural history of the Hottentots, entirely borrowed from count Buffon.

The journey into the inland parts of Africa was performed by a caravan of eighty-five persons, among whom there were seventeen Europeans, in 1761 and 1762. The whole account of it is comprized in 100 pages; and contains confirmations of many things already known; some cursory relations of several tribes and nations hitherto unknown; and descriptions, with some faithful and accurate delineations of several animals hitherto less perfectly known; for instance, that of the male and female elephants, who are here also said, since the settlement of the Europeans, to have retired farther from the Cape; that of the river-horse, (hippotamus;) of the young giraffe; of the rhinoceros, whose wars with the elephant are here discredited, as both of them are grazing animals. The zebra is said to come no farther northwards than Angola and Congo. The gnou, a ruminating animal, is also accurately described and delineated.

*Essai sur le Bonheur, où l'on recherche si l'on peut aspirer à un vrai Bonheur sur la Terre, jusqu'à quel Point il depende nous, & quel est le Chemin qui y conduit. Par M. l'Abbé de G. Vicaire General de Bordeaux. 8vo. Vienna.*

THIS treatise is divided into eight sections. viz. Is there any genuine happiness to be hoped for in this world? Consideration of the obstacles with which our own errors and passions obstruct our way to happiness. In what happiness consists? How far it may be promoted or precluded by sensual enjoyments? In what manner it is promoted by the pleasures of imagination and of reason? And how it is promoted by virtue in general, and especially by benevolence, beneficence, and friendship? A short application of the principles here established, to the different ages and ranks: finally, of religion, as the main requisite for happiness.

Both

Both the doctrines of philosophers, and the general confession and complaints of mankind, induce us to believe that true happiness is not to be found in this world; neither is corrupted human nature susceptible of unmingled and unalterable felicity. Some comfort however yet remains, and, 'pour ainsi dire, un bonheur du second ordre!' Nay, some persons, says he, who had left the world, and sacrificed all their other concerns to religion, have asserted that they were actually happy.—In appreciating the relation of marriage to happiness too, our author seems to think a cloister the surest way to felicity; a way which we would however by no means explore ourselves, nor recommend to any one even of our catholic readers.

In other respects, our author's reasonings are very sensible and judicious; and contain the most important precepts for discerning and pursuing true happiness. His delivery is methodical and convincing; but his expressions are sometimes too hyperbolic. He has richly seasoned his whole book with moral sentences, from ancient and modern writers in prose and verse; generally by way of confirming and illustrating his own sentiment; and sometimes in order to correct and qualify their's.

In his section, Of the Pleasures of the Mind, he has occasionally inserted a concise and judicious review of some ancient authors, and of the most eminent French writers of the age of Lewis XIV.

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*Enumeratio Numismatum ex omni Metallo et Forma, quæ asservat A. Fr. Ith. Quarto. Bern.*

**T**HE collection of these imperial coins, possessed by captain Ith, a member of the senate of Bern, is remarkable on account of their series, of the great variety of symbols and surnames, and the scarce coins of relations of the emperors. The present enumeration was drawn up and published by Mr. Francis Lewis Haller, a young relation of the late celebrated Mr. de Haller, and a learned antiquary. Most of these coins have been found in Switzerland, and Mr. Haller indicates at every one the value assigned to each by connoisseurs.

The series begins with the dictator Julius Cæsar: here the word Cloacina is said to be a surname of Venus, derived from a place called Cloacina, where she is supposed to have been worshipped. The catalogue ends with Arcadius.

Among the remarkable coins in this collection, we meet with an Antonia, of a larger size, undoubtedly genuine; a scarce coin found at Windisch, representing Drusus the son of Tiberius, and Tiberius and Gemellus, sons of Drusus and of Livilla; a coin of Claudius with a head of Messalina, in commemoration of the liberality which that emperor is said to have shown during the great dearth mentioned in the Acts of the Apostles; a Messalina *Nova Hæc*, a Grecian coin from Nicæa; a Diva Augusta on a coin of Galba's, is said to be Livia—Mr. Hartmann has presented the library at Bern with a gold coin of Marciana, whose apotheosis is expressed by an eagle, instead, as usual, by a peacock; a Verus taking the field against the Parthians, has been found near Lausanne, and another ditto at Wilsisburgh; some genuine stamped coins of the Gordians; the tyrants; a beautiful coin of Hostilianus; a well preserved and genuine Cornelia Supera; a Mariniana; numberless coins of Galienus are found in Switzerland; Diana Felix, with the stag, is met with oftener than fifty times, in a variety of expressions, Cyriades,

Regillianus, Balista, Nigrinianus, Achilleus, a Delmatius, Flavius Sylvanus, an exceeding scarce coin?

This catalogue takes up 108 quarto pages.

*Davidis aliorumque Poetarum Hebræorum Carminum Libri V. ex Codd. MSS. et antiquis Verss. accurate recensuit et Commentariis illustravit*  
Jo. Aug. Starck. Vol. I. P. I. et II. 8vo. Regiomonti et Lipsiæ.

**P**ROF. Starck of Koenigsburg intends to publish a critical edition of the Psalms in seven octavo volumes. The first volume now published contains the general and particular prolegomena; the second, third, fourth, fifth, and sixth are to contain a complete new recension of the Hebrew text of the Psalms, with a new Latin version and the necessary critical and exegetical commentaries; and the seventh an index, in which he will insert all his philological investigations of the senses of particular Hebrew words. For these useful purposes he has availed himself of the treasures of the Royal French Library, and of that of the Sorbonne at Paris.

The general prolegomena contained in the first part of this first volume, may be considered as a critical, though not a complete introduction rather into the whole Ancient Testament, than into the Psalms; though he has here illustrated his doctrines by examples chiefly drawn from the Psalms. The general prolegomena treat in thirteen sections of the following subjects—

Sect. 1. Of the origin of various readings in general: he derives them not only from the negligence and inattention of the transcribers, and several other accidents, but in a great measure also from willful falsifications by the Jews, which he thinks, they attempted partly from hatred to their own brethren out of Palestine, and partly with a view to invalidate the strongest arguments used by the Christians for proving the messiahship of Jesus.

Sect. 2. Of the Hebrew manuscripts, and of the usual and very arbitrary characteristics of the antiquity of a MS. Dr. Starck has himself collated eight Hebrew MSS. at Paris, and has subjoined a short account of each.

Sect. 3. Of the Masora, its origin, successive alterations, and its critical use, which he proves by instances of some obscure passages in the Psalms; here we meet with an original and fortunate conjecture of his; where, merely by a change in the punctuation, he restores that very obscure and difficult passage, Psalm lxxiii. 4. to a very striking and most plausible sense. He only divides the obscure **לסותם** into two words, **לסו תם**.

Sect. 4. Of the ancient versions, and their use. Sect. 5. Of the Alexandrine version, and its falsification by Hellenists, Palestine Jews, and by Christians. Sect. 6. Of Aquila, Symmachus, Theodotion, and the other Greek versions. Sect. 7. Of the ancient Syriac version, of which he has collated two MS. in the Royal French Library. Sect. 8. Of the Chaldaic paraphrase. Sect. 9. Of Hieronymus' translation. Sect. 10. Of the Vulgate, and its authenticity, &c. of the Vulgate he has collated six MSS. Sect. 11. Of the Arabic version of the Psalms (in the Polyglotts) which our author has again very carefully examined and collated with four MSS. and which he thinks of very great use for appreciating the readings, not only of the LXX. but of the Hebrew text itself. Sect. 12. Of parallelism, both historical and poetical.

Sect.

Sect. 13. Of the critical and hermeneutical use of the rabbins and the fathers of the church.

Part II. Of this first volume contains three sections.

Sect. 14. Treats of the author's, titles, collections, and divisions of the Psalms. The authors themselves have, after the custom of the Eastern poets, prefixed their names to their respective Psalms, but the music intended for an accompaniment to the text of a Psalm, was then only mentioned, when a Psalm was consecrated to the public worship.

The Psalms were collected at three different times: first, by David, when he instituted and regulated the temple-music; afterwards under the reign of Hezekiah; and finally, by Esdras and Nehemiah, after the Babylonian exile.

Sect. 15. Of the inspiration of the prophecies, history, morality, dogmas, and other subjects of the Psalms. Our author does not think that all the Psalms were, strictly speaking, inspired, but those only which treat of the Messiah, and of the religion he was to establish. He adds, however, 'Tamen negari non poterit sub singularibus supremi numinis auspiciis hæc carmina concinnata esse, et ita quidem, ut nihil in eis esset, quæ providentia divina est, quod vel sanis de Deo principiis, et præceptis morum adversaretur, potius ad melius de Deo instruendos homines, pro ratione istorum temporum, et ad fingendos pie mores conferre possent quam plurimum; hoc enim *Sicut* illud est sacrarum pandectarum.'

He thinks the second, sixteenth, twenty-second, fortieth, and one hundred and tenth Psalms, the only prophetic ones; and that the whole collection of the Psalms contains no prophecy whatever concerning the political and temporal state of the Jews.

Sect. 16th. Treats of the poetry of the Psalms, and consists chiefly of an extract from bishop Lowth's classical and immortal work, 'De Sacra Poesi Hebræorum.'

*Essai sur les Lieux et les Dangers des Sépultures, traduit de l'Italien de M. Piatoli, Prof. en Hist. Eccles. &c. à Modene, par M. Vicq d'Azir. 12mo. Paris.*

THERE are abuses which cannot be too often exposed, and truths that cannot be too zealously enforced. The danger of crowding churches and church-yards, situated in populous neighbourhoods, with corpse, is now almost generally acknowledged through Europe, and already prevented for the future by the salutary regulations of several governments. We wish to see some similar measure adopted in so populous a city as London; and though we have already mentioned several foreign publications on this interesting subject, we will now take notice of one more to the same purpose.

The dangerous abuse in question has for a long time been pointed out by many celebrated physicians, and yet always suffered to subsist in most countries. The reigning duke of Modena being willing to abolish it in his dominions, has thought it expedient to respect prejudices founded on feelings dear to nature; and previously to convince his subjects of the good he intended them by this resolution: and we think signor Piatoli's present Essay well calculated to answer these ends.

He has divided his book into two parts. In the first he gives an historical account of the customs of various nations in disposing of

their dead. The custom of burying them, seems to be the most general; but that of removing the burying-grounds to considerable distances from inhabited places, is almost equally general and coeval. The laws of the Twelve Tables prohibited burials within towns; this law was renewed by the wisest emperors, and religiously observed by the first Christians; since even the corpse of martyrs were at first not buried in churches: but soon after, churches were built over the tombs of some; and the corpse of others afterwards transported into churches.

Constantine was buried in the porch of the church of the Apostles; an honour at first intended to the first Christian emperor alone; but soon arrogated by his successors, by bishops, and by people of high rank. These tombs, however, were then only in the porches, or in chapels, surrounding churches, but separated from them. These chapels became afterwards parts of the churches. Pious but weak people thought it an advantage to have their remains deposited in the same places with the relics of saints; and in spite of the constitutions of the popes, and the decisions of councils, the churches were filled with corpse, and the burying grounds placed in the midst of towns and cities.—This plain account of the manner in which the abuse was introduced, sufficiently evinces that religion is by no means concerned in supporting it.

In the second part the author proves and displays the danger of burying the dead, either in churches, or in burying-grounds too small, or placed too near inhabited places.

The translator has prefixed a preface, containing a minute account of what has been done in France, on this subject; and of the works of physicians who have struggled against this abuse and nuisance; and relates many interesting facts, with which the Italian writer was not acquainted; such as the observations on the bad effects of the air of the charnel-house of the Innocents at Paris. These observations were repeatedly made both by Fernel above two hundred years ago, and by Mess. Hunauld, Lemer, and Geoffroi, forty years ago. All these celebrated physicians had been consulted by government on this head; and yet the abuse continued, notwithstanding their answers. Mr. d'Azir reports the sensible remarks of Dr. Maret of Dijon, on the proper depth for graves; on the time after which the same grave may be opened without danger; on the proper dimensions of burying-grounds, with respect to the number of corpse they are to contain, and to the nature of the soil. He also relates the chemical analysis of the air of burying-grounds made by M. Cadet. The result of the whole is, that all burials whatever ought, for humanity's sake, to be in spacious, airy places; that methods less fatal to the living than those now in use, ought to be taken for honouring the ashes of the dead; that tombs erected at proper distances from towns might full as well as those in churches serve for monuments of the vanity or piety of families, of the enthusiasm of friendship, or of national gratitude.

That great and good man, chancellor Daguesseau, ordered his remains to be buried in the common burying-ground at Anteuil:—Simon Pietre directed his to be buried in that of S. Etienne du Mont, and his son engraved on his tomb:

‘ Simon Pietre, vir pius et probus,  
Hic sub dio sepeliri voluit,  
Ne mortuus cuiquam noceret,  
Qui vivus omnibus profuerat.’

The

The celebrated anatomist Verhyen, who was buried in the common burying-ground of Loewen, had ordered the following epitaph to be engraved on his tomb:

'Philippus Verhyen, medicinæ doctor & professor, partem sui mortalem hic in coemeterio poni voluit, ne templum dehonestaret aut nocuis halitibus inficeret.'

### FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

*De Potestate Ecclesiastica et Temporalis, sive Declaratio Cleri Gallicani Ann. 1682. Sacræ Scripturæ, Sanctorum Patrum, Conciliorum, Romanorum Pontificum, &c. Testimonis firmata. 1 Vol. 4to. Vienna.*

THOUGH Bossuet's excellent commentary on the four famous propositions of the Gallican church in 1682, appears to be a very full and solid demonstration and illustration of the salutary truths contained in them; it seems there are still people weak enough in France to need new and repeated informations, that the pope has no power nor right to depose kings, that he is subject to general councils, that he is not infallible even in the dogma, &c. For the present work was originally and lately published in France: and from this elegant Latin translation we learn, that there are even at Vienna people of such weak and timid faith, as to fear the destruction of Christ's church on earth, if the pope be not allowed an unlimited power over conscience, crowns, laws, councils, &c.

To these weak minds this instructive work will, we hope, prove a useful and comfortable performance. It will also afford a solid and complete information to such protestants as desire to know the system of that part of the Roman Catholic clergy, by whom the papal authority is limited.

*Versuch ueber die Gesetzgebende Klugheit, Verbrechen ohne Strafen zu verhüten; or, an Essay on the Legislative Prudence of preventing Crimes, without Punishments. 8vo. Franckfort and Leipzig. (German).*

For the very desirable and humane, though we fear not very practicable, purpose of preventing crimes, without punishments, our author proposes, the proper use to be made of religion in general; of education; the prevention of drunkenness; proper and very severe measures against beggars and vagabonds; and finally, the repeal of such punishments as either occasion or at least, do not prevent further crimes; especially those who brand the culprits with infamy.

*Genealogia Jesu, Hominis Optimi Maximi. Cum chronologico Vaticiniorum de Messia Indice. Aut. M. Paul Casp. Durr. 8vo. Goettingæ.*

The chronological succession of the several prophecies concerning the Messiah, are here judiciously connected with the genealogy of Jesus Christ from Adam to Mary.

*Prologi in Terentium. 4to. Pistoja.*

Written by signor Michael Angelo Giacomelli, a very learned and elegant imitator of Terence, and published by signor Antonio Matani, who has prefixed the author's life.

*Die Glaubenslehre den wahren Mennoniten oder Taufgesamten aus deren oeffentlichen Glaubensbekenntnissen zusammengezogen; or, the Religious Doctrine of the Orthodox Mennonites, drawn up from their public Confessions of Faith. By Cornelius Ris, &c. 4to. Hamburgh. (German).*

A faithful translation of a Dutch original, published in 1773, with the approbation of the united orthodox Mennonites, annually meeting at the Sun, at Amsterdam. This work contains not only their doctrines, but their reasons; and their answers to the objections that have been raised them; and recommends itself by completeness, order, perspicuity, and precision.

*Brieven over het Hooglied, waar in de Nadruk der Betuigingen, de Afwisselingen der Samenspraaken en het Fraaie der Poësy uit de Zegswyzen en Gebruiken der Oosterlingen, op eene nieuwe Wyze worden opgehelderd door Jotua Van Iperen. A. L. M. Predicant te Veere. 2 Vol. 8vo. 'sGravenhage. (Dutch).*

Sixty learned but somewhat tiresome letters on the Cantic of Solomon, containing some valuable illustrations of that poem, many objections to the explanations of other writers, especially bishop Lowth and Chevalier Michaelis at Goettingen; and many fulsome compliments alternately paid and returned between the reverend Mr. Van Iperen and his correspondent, on their respective learning, judgment, and sagacity.

*Saggio e Memoria de la Cura preservativa da l'Idrofobia eseguita in dieci Persone offese da Cane rabioso da Ignatio Lotti, Protomedico della Provincia de l'Itria. 4to. Venice.*

Ten persons were bit by a large dog. Signor Lotti ordered mercury to be rubbed into them, mercurius dulcis was also given them inwardly, till a moderate salivation ensued; and all the ten men were cured.

*Gerardi Hasselti Ampulla Isidis Aegyptia, nunc primum Luce publica donata et illustrata. 8vo. Utrecht.*

A small, trifling, earthen, antique vase, like that delineated in Beger's Thesaur. Brand. Tom. iii. p. 396. illustrated with a great deal of antiquarian erudition.

*Storia della Squinancia cancrenosa epidemica e contagiosa, dal Giovanni Brugnone, Direttore della Scuola Veterinaria. 8vo. Torino.*

The epidemical quincy with which a number of horses were seized, was so violent as to kill the first in thirty-three hours, and others in twelve, and even in nine hours; and yet the seat of the disease in the throat so imperceptible, that none would even have thought it a quincy till after the dissection of the carcases. The strongest and most healthy horses were first infected and killed. The vapour of vinegar, a mixture of spirit of vitriol, spirit of wine, and spirit of sal ammoniac, seemed to afford some relief. But an effectual remedy is still a desideratum.

*Conamen Mappæ generalis Medicamentorum simplicium, secundum affinetates virium Naturalium novâ Methodo Geographica, dispositum, &c. 1 Vol. 4to. With a large Copper-plate. Strasburgh.*

Dr. Wirz's attempt of arranging the names of drugs at different respective distances according to the greater or less analogy they bear

bear to one another from their simple or compound virtues, is surely an original thought; but its execution was liable to great and many difficulties. These, however, he has so far conquered by dint of labour and industry, that his invention may be considered as an useful help for memory in the very intricate study of simple medicines and their respective virtues.

*Homeri Odyssea, Latinis versibus expressa, a Bernardo Zamagna, Ragusino, ad optimum Principem Petrum Leopoldum Austriacum, &c. 1 Vol. Folio. Senis. (Sienna).*

This faithful and elegant translation of the *Odyssey* is printed in the same size and type, as the Latin translation of the *Iliad*, lately published by Abbate Cunich, another learned native of Ragusa.

*Observaciones Astronomicas hechas en Cadiz, en el Observatorio real de la Compania de Cavalleros Guardias Marinas, por el Capitan de Navio graduado D. Vicente Tofino de S. Miguel; y por D. Joseph Varela, Capitan da Fragata de la Real Armada, &c. Impresas de Ordin de S. M. Anno de 1777. 4to.*

Of the first volume of this valuable work, we have already taken notice. This second volume contains the observations made in 1775. The most remarkable and valuable among these, are the observations of Mercury, and of the eclipses of stars; as these latter observations can rarely succeed in France and England, on account of the instability of the weather.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

### P O L I T I C A L.

*Candid and impartial Narrative of the Transactions of the Fleet, under the Command of Lord Howe. 8vo. 1s. Almon.*

**W**E are here presented with a detail of the naval transactions from the arrival of the Toulon Squadron on the coast of America, to the time of lord Howe's departure for England. The Narrative is said to be written by an officer who served under the British admiral, and who places the whole of his lordship's conduct in an advantageous point of view.

*A Letter to the People of America, lately printed at New-York; now re-published by an American. With a Postscript, by the Editor, addressed to Sir W\*\*\*\*\* H\*\*\*. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Becket.*

This Letter, which was lately printed at New York, and is now re-published, contains a sensible and spirited address to the Americans on their conduct in the dispute with Great Britain. The author exposes with great energy the ridiculous plea of their pretended grievances and apprehensions; and is particularly farcastic, as well as argumentative, on their unnatural alliance with France. Subjoined to the Letter is an expostulatory address to sir W. H. with whose conduct the author declares himself not a little dissatisfied.

H h 4

Letter

*Letter from an Officer of the Naval Army of France to the Hon. Admiral Keppel; dated on board a French Squadron off Ushant, 9th of August, 1778. With an engrav'd Plan of the principal Evolutions of the Fleets, in the Engagement off Ushant. Translated from the Original, printed at Brest. With some Notes.* 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

The writer of this Letter, which is printed both in French and English, endeavours to vindicate the honour of the French navy in the late action off Ushant, which he alleges to be misrepresented in the account given of it by admiral Keppel. To the Letter is prefixed an engraved plan of the principal evolutions in the engagement.

*The Junto. Or, the Interior Cabinet laid Open. A state Farce.* 8vo. 1s. Bladon.

A farcical dramatic effusion respecting some high characters; but too destitute of humour to afford entertainment to any reader.

*Observations on the Militia Laws.* 8vo. 6d. Fielding and Walker.

These Observations are said to have been occasioned by a late opinion upon the militia laws, so far as they relate to the relief of the indigent families of such men as serve in the militia; and the writer presents us with decisive extracts from the acts of parliament on this subject.

## P O E T R Y.

*Warley: A Satire. Part I.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Brown.

This poem commences with a short and picturesque description of Warley camp, whence the author passes to a review of a different nature; exhibiting to the fancy a number of characters, which, in general, become the subject of poetical reprehension. The plainness of the satire is mostly such as seems to disdain the refinements of reserved composition; but its force, if not increased, is often rendered more agreeable by a mixture of humour and pleasantry.

*The Second Part of Warley: a Satire.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Brown.

This Part is written on the plan of the preceding, and evidently partakes of the same spirit.

*The Discovery: or, Strephon and Amelia. A Poem. Addressed to the Youth of the Present Age. In Two Parts.* 4to. 1s. Evans.

The poet rambles into a wood, where he discovers two lovers, Strephon and Amelia; and is witness to a very tender interview. The next day he repairs to the same place, and discovers them on their knees, vowing everlasting constancy, and determining

‘————— to stay

‘Till Hymen celebrates the nuptial day.’

A trifling story, in very humble verse; but elegantly printed.

*Mora*

*Moral Eclogues.* 4to. 1s. H. Payne.

This publication consists of four Eclogues. I. Theron, or the Praise of Rural Life. II. Palemon, or Benevolence. III. Armin, or the Discontented. IV. Lycoron, or the Unhappy. Though these pastorals do not abound in a variety of original sentiments, they are not unpleasing compositions: the language is harmonious; and the images are very properly selected from rural life. The prospect of futurity, formed by a vivid and youthful imagination, and the vanity of human expectations, are agreeably described in the following lines:

‘ Haste down, O sun! and close the tedious day:  
Time, to the unhappy, slowly moves away.  
Not so, to me, in Roden’s sylvan bowers,  
Pass’d youth’s short blissful reign of careless hours;  
When to my view the fancy’d future lay,  
A region ever tranquil, ever gay.  
O then, what ardors did my breast inflame!  
What thoughts were mine, of friendship, love, and fame:  
How tasteless life, now all its joys are try’d,  
And warm pursuits in dull repose subside!’

The ensuing lines are tender and pathetic:

‘ That grace of shape, that elegance of air,  
That blooming face so exquisitely fair;  
That eye of brightness, bright as morning’s ray,  
That smile of softness, soft as closing day,  
Which bound my soul to thee; all, all are fled—  
All lost in dreary mansions of the dead!’

## D R A M A T I C.

*The Lady of the Manor, a Comic Opera: as it is performed at the Theatre-Royal in Covent-Garden, written by Dr. Kenrick.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly.

The outline of this piece is taken from Mr. Charles Johnson’s *Country Lassies*, which has undergone considerable alterations both in the plot and dialogue. The situations, in general, are not interesting, nor is the unravelling of the fable produced with that art which so much pleases the judgement in a well-conducted drama; but a few of the characters are painted with justness of expression; the sentiments are sometimes placed in a forcible light; and the musical parts sufficiently well adapted to the occasion.

*The Invasion: or, a Trip to Brighthelmston. A Farce of Two Acts, as it is performed, with Universal Applause, at the Theatre-Royal, in Covent-Garden. Written by F. Pilon.* 8vo. 1s. Kearsley.

The dialogue of this entertainment is supported with spirit, and the principal characters are strongly marked; but artifice on the

the one hand, and whimsical credulity on the other, are carried to a degree that favours of romantic extravagance.

*Annette and Lubin: a Comic Opera, in one Act. As it is performed at the Theatre Royal in Covent-Garden. 8vo. 6d. Kearsley.*

This is an imitation of the French pieces of one act; and, like Mr. Dibden's other little operatical productions, is calculated to afford an hour's agreeable entertainment.

### M E D I C A L.

*Cases and Observations on the Hydrophobia: by J. Vaughan, M. D. The Second Edition. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Cadell.*

In our Review for February last we gave an account of the former edition of this pamphlet, in which, from a distinct history of two cases, Dr. Vaughan contended for the inefficacy of all the remedies that have hitherto been recommended for the cure of the hydrophobia; and he has now confirmed his opinion by the history of an additional Case.—Annexed, as before, to the Cases and Observations, is an Account of the Cæsarian Section: to which, for the first time, are subjoined reflexions on dividing the Symphysis of the Osæ Pubis. The last of these treatises is the production of Dr. Hunter, whose judicious cautions against precipitate recourse to that shocking operation, cannot fail of being highly acceptable, as well as useful, to every practitioner in midwifery.

### D I V I N I T Y.

*A Dictionary of the Bible; Historical and Geographical, Theological, Moral and Ritual, Philosophical and Philological. By Alexander Macbean, A. M. 8vo. 6s. Carnan and F. Newbery.*

This work contains a concise account of the men, women, cities, countries, rivers, mountains, animals, diseases, weights, measures, ceremonies, customs, virtues, vices, sects, doctrines, &c. mentioned in the Old and New Testament.

In most of the biographical and geographical articles the author has made great use of Calmet. But in some of the moral and theological subjects, which did not come within the plan of that learned Benedictine, he has quoted Wyttenbach, a writer we have not had the pleasure of seeing. The author's system of divinity is obscure and Calvinistical. But the reader shall judge for himself:

• Predestination, is the decree of God concerning the state of man after this life, of happiness or misery; that of happiness, is the decree of election; of misery, that of rejection or reprobation, implied in election. Predestination is called purpose, foreknowledge, and predetermination, Rom. viii. 28, 29. It is eternal, immutable, most free, actuated by motives, and accom-

plished by means, as are all the decrees of God. These means are faith, the gift of heaven, Eph. ii. 8. and holiness, the fruit of faith, ib. i. 4. John iii. 18. by which lost men are fitted for the enjoyment of God, Heb. xii. 14. This predestination is properly election; as the leaving a man in his state of natural perversion, is rejection or reprobation, Rom. ix. 22. for superior reasons, which no finite understanding can ever compass, ib. xi. 33. as lying deep in the scheme of divine providence, and involved in the universal harmony of the world.—We may consider predestination either as absolute, including both the end and the means; or as conditional, in our manner of considering the means separately, or the decree in the execution, not as in God decreeing, who always joins the means with the end.—Let it be added, that the reprobate are wholly inexcusable, in neither employing the means, nor improving the talents, put into their hands by Providence. John iii. 19.

It is now well known to the learned, that the doctrine of predestination, as it is here stated, is built upon gross misrepresentations of Scripture.

*The Schoolmistress for the Poor.* 12mo. 2s. 6d. Bell.

Practical reflections on the most interesting parts of the Bible, adapted to the stations and capacities of poor children; and, on this account, a useful performance.

*A Book of Prayers and Devotions for private Use.* 12mo. 2s. 6d. Robinson.

This publication contains prayers for persons in almost every circumstance of life; but particularly for women about the time of their delivery; for persons, who have met with any dangerous accident; and for those, who are under inoculation.—As some people entertain scruples of conscience with respect to inoculation, the author has attempted to remove their objections by some preliminary remarks; and for the benefit of those, who still disapprove of that practice, he has subjoined a preservative medicine, communicated to the public by Dr. Haller. These forms of devotion lay no claim to accuracy or elegance of composition; they are drawn up in a plain, familiar style, are suited to the lowest capacities; and (which is a circumstance in their favour) they are so short, that they cannot possibly fatigue the attention of any one, who has the least inclination to be devout.

*A Letter of Solemn Counsel from a Minister of the Gospel, to a Person in a declining State of Health.* 8vo. 6d. Robinson.

This ghostly adviser gives the dying offender a general view of his deplorable state. He tells him, that death is just stretching forth his resistless and relentless hand to cut the brittle thread of his life; that the same messenger is, as it were, presenting him with a copy of the death-warrant, signed and sealed by the hand of Him, from whom are the issues of life; and that, in a very short space, the king of terrors will arrest him, as his prisoner,

soner, and carry him into a land of darkness, where all things are forgotten.'—He informs him, that 'he was ushered into the world with a nature, replete with enmity against God;' he represents to him 'the awful consequences attending the many-linked chain of his rebellions;' and at last endeavours to give him consolation, by an assurance, 'that there is not greater demerit in his sins, than sufficiency in the Saviour.—This is the plan usually pursued by all the orators of the Tabernacle and the Lock, on which we leave the intelligent reader to make his own reflections.

*A Sermon preached in the Cathedral-Church of Hereford, before the venerable the Dean of Hereford, on the 19<sup>th</sup> Day of August, 1778, being the Day in which he held his Visitation. By the rev. Thomas Horne. 4to. 6d. Baldwin.*

The author considers the conduct of the Christian minister in the public exercise of his function, and in private life. On the first head he observes, that the gravity of the sacred function is utterly irreconcilable with a spirit of conceit and vanity; that the preacher should pay a special regard to the circumstances and situation of his people; and that he must earnestly and assiduously inculcate these two articles, the redemption of fallen man by a crucified Saviour, and, in that Saviour, a union of the Godhead with human nature. On the second head, he represents the importance of a good example in the preacher as the most persuasive and efficacious method of instruction; observing, 'that though it is inconsiderable in appearance, it has a keen edge, and, as it strikes at the heart, without touching its pride, will therefore insinuate itself into a bosom, which would be impenetrable to remonstrance.'

*A Sermon preached at St. Sepulchre's, London, on Sunday, March 15, 1778, for the Benefit of the Humane Society instituted for the Recovery of Persons apparently dead by drowning. By Colin Milne, LL. D. 8vo. 1s. Rivington.*

Most of the popular preachers in this metropolis have been mere enthusiasts, and their sermons wild and incoherent rhapsodies on the corruption of human nature, all-saving grace, all-healing faith, and the all-sufficiency of the atonement. We have now the pleasure to find, that popularity and fanaticism are not inseparably united. Dr. Milne has a considerable share of the former; but, if we may judge by this specimen, no tincture of the latter. His discourse undoubtedly deserves the highest commendation. The chief design of it (except the latter part, which relates to the Humane Society) is to refute the false and illiberal sentiments of those wretched declaimers, who represent the human heart as naturally sordid, base, and ungenerous; as an utter stranger to the social and benevolent affections, and the seat of nothing but malevolent and malignant passions.

*The Parish Clerk's Pocket Companion: being a Collection of Singing Psalms from the Old and New Versions; suited to every Sunday, Festival, and Holiday throughout the Year. By Joseph Fox. 12mo. 2s. Johnson.*

The first edition of this work was published in 1752, and was favourably received by the author's brethren. The present is improved and enlarged by the addition of the New Version. The Psalms, or verses, which are to be sung, are not printed at full length, but only the first line, with a reference.

The Psalms are in general properly adapted to the occasions, on which they are to be used. Though perhaps in some instances the author might have made a better choice. For example: the following lines do not altogether breathe the meek and humble spirit of Christianity:

- ' In time of war and tumults.
- ' Psal. vii. v. 6, 7, 8.
- ' Arise, and let thy *anger*, Lord,  
In my defence engage,' &c.

If the author should make any farther improvements in this work, we would recommend a short Index, directing the clerk to Psalms proper to be sung after sermons on the most important topics of religion; such, as, the Divine Omniscience, Providence, Repentance, Faith, Humility, Death, Judgment, Heaven, &c.

As many parish clerks have neither sense nor judgement in the selection of their psalms, this work will be of great use to that venerable fraternity.

*A Sketch of the distinguishing Graces of the Christian Character, &c. By Philip Gurdon, M. A. Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Mathews.*

The author endeavours to shew, that the Holy Spirit exerts a secret, yet efficacious influence on the minds of men; that we cannot but be as sensible of this operation, as we are of the air on our bodies; and that it does not supercede human endeavours; for, says he, though we are not capable of thinking, much less of doing, any thing of ourselves, 'yet a knowledge of our own natural impotency leads us to God for that grace, whereby we are capacitated to strive and to labour in our spiritual course.' He then proceeds to shew, that the Holy Spirit produces the following graces, which make up what he calls, 'the animated portraiture of a heaven-born Christian;' namely, faith, repentance, hope, the love of God and man, peace, joy, humility, meekness, patience, righteousness, and temperance.

This performance breathes a spirit of piety, modesty, and benevolence. But the author, with all the Calvinists and Methodists, infers the natural impotence of man from passages, which have no relation to that subject. One of his first and fundamental

damental testimonies is this: 'Not that we are sufficient of ourselves to think any thing as of ourselves, but our sufficiency is of God.' 2 Cor. iii. 3. These words, he imagines, imply men's utter inability to do, or even to think any thing that is good, without the special assistance of God. But with equal propriety we might from hence infer, that we are not able, by our own natural faculties, to think any thing at all, either good or bad. These interpreters of scripture do not seem to know or consider, that these words are applied by the apostle wholly and solely to the first preachers of Christianity, and their natural insufficiency to accomplish the conversion of the world. Of ourselves, says the apostle, we are not able to think or judge, λογισασθαι, what is best to be done for the service of the gospel: but all our sufficiency for this arduous undertaking is of God, 'who has made us ABLE MINISTERS of the New Testament,' with demonstration of the Spirit and with power.

### CONTROVERSIAL.

*Bishop Taylor's Judgment on Articles and Forms of Confession particular Churches, with Notes, and an Epistle dedicatory, to the right reverend the Lord Bishop of Litchfield and Coventry.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

Bishop Taylor's discourse on subscription is in his *Ductor Dubitantium*, b. iii. c. 4. where it is included in three folio pages. The rule, which the author lays down and illustrates, is, that 'subscription to articles and forms of confession, in any particular church, is wholly of POLITICAL consideration.' The pamphlet before us is inscribed to the bishop of Litchfield and Coventry, in consequence of his lordship's having lately republished \* "A Moral Demonstration of the Truth of Christianity," from the same volume; and in consequence likewise of his having, in a Charge, delivered to the clergy of his diocese, in 1775 and 1776, inculcated some principles different from those of bishop Taylor. In the dedication the editor makes some remarks on his lordship's Charge, and contrasts the different ideas, concerning subscription, of these two eminent prelates, equally cordial and zealous in their attachment to the church of England. The passages, which he more particularly points out, are the concluding sentences of each writer, expressed in the following terms:

Bishop Hurd.—'And if we only use that latitude, which the expression fairly admits, and which the church allows, they (the Articles) will continue to answer the great end hitherto effected by them, of preserving among the members of the church *an unity of the spirit in the bond of peace.*'

Bishop Taylor.—'This (latitude) is the last remedy, but it is the worst; it hath in it something of craft, but very little of

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\* See Crit. Rev. vol. xlii. p. 305.

ingenuity; and if it can serve the ends of peace, or of external charity, or of a phantastic concord, yet, *it cannot serve the ends of truth and holiness, and Christian simplicity.*

The editor has subjoined some notes to bishop Taylor's tract, in which he takes notice of two or three mistakes in his lordship's citations, and attempts to ascertain the meaning of some passages, which are not, he thinks, expressed with sufficient precision.

*A Dialogue on the Subject of Religious Bigotry, between Candour and Orthodoxy. Small 8vo. 1s. Buckland.*

In this Dialogue the author introduces two gentlemen, under the appellations of Candour and Orthodoxy, debating on certain theological subjects, concerning which they entertain very different opinions. The former exclaims against the narrow heart and the cruel bigotry of his adversary; the other reproaches his antagonist with want of principle. A friend interposes; the matter is debated with freedom on both sides; and the moderator gives his opinion of the controversy in the following terms:—'Friend Candour, I think the matter has been pretty fairly and fully agitated; and I must own, though I cannot adopt his creed, there is some weight in what our neighbour has advanced. I perceive from the whole, that all parties use many favourite terms, just as politicians do, to serve their own particular purposes. I must confess, that freedom of inquiry does and ought to suppose, that a man must be left to judge of the necessity and importance of those truths he might have discovered; and I am convinced there will be no hurt in all this to society, yea, much good, if a powerful magistrate, and haughty state priest, never take it into their heads to imagine, that they can make converts to their essentials in religion by some kind of persecution.'

*A Narrative of the Origin and Progress of the Prosecution against the Rev. Edward Evanston, late Vicar of Tewkesbury, in the County of Gloucester. By Neast Havard, Gent. Town Clerk of the Borough of Tewkesbury. 8vo. 1s. Robinson.*

*A Word at Parting: being a few Observations on a mutilated Sermon, and an Epistle dedicatory to the worthy Inhabitants of Tewkesbury; lately published by Edward Evanston, M. A. To which are added the Arguments of Counsel in the Court of Delegates touching Mr. Evanston's Prosecution. By Neast Havard, Gent. 8vo. 1s. Robinson.*

The prosecution commenced against Mr. Evanston, by some of the inhabitants of Tewkesbury, was 'for preaching, speaking, and writing against the doctrines of the church of England, and for making arbitrary alterations in reading the Liturgy.'

With regard to the Liturgy, the complaints here alleged are, that Mr. Evanston had read the Nicene Creed in an indecent manner; that in October 1772, he read no farther than the word

'in-

'invisible,' ordering the clerk to proceed as usual; that, in the Apostles' Creed, instead of 'the resurrection of the *body*,' he said, the resurrection of the *dead*; and that, in the blessing at the end of the sermon, after the word 'Almighty,' he constantly omitted the following clause, 'the Father, the Son, and the Holy Ghost.'

From these publications it is very clear, that if there has been a want of prudence and orthodoxy on one side, there has been likewise a want of temper and moderation on the other.

### M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

*An Experimental System of Metallurgy, with general Remarks and Explanations. By the late John Henry Hampe, M. D. &c*  
Fol. 18s. Nourse.

We have not seen a more contemptible scientific production by any modern author. The reader is here presented with a course of experiments, founded on the fallacious and long since exploded doctrine of the transmutation of metals. It is, in short, a system containing all the absurdities of the Hermetic philosophy, exemplified in a variety of instances, so obviously hypothetical and false, that it is difficult to say, whether they afford stronger evidence of the extreme credulity or dissingenuousness of the author.

*An Essay on divided Commons. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinson.*

This Essay relates particularly to those commons that are situate far from lime, and it consists of two parts. The first contains estimates of the expences of cultivating wastes, which the author accompanies with observations; and the second contains remarks on turf-ashes and quick-lime.

*A Letter to the Guardians of the Poor, of the Burgh of Bury St. Edmunds, in Suffolk. 8vo. 6d. Evans.*

The writer of this Letter evinces the superiority of work-houses to any other mode of relieving the poor, especially in great towns. The subject of the Letter is local, but the observations it contains may prove of more general advantage.

*The Female Jester; or, Wit for the Ladies. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Bew.*

Comical jest, smart repartee, brilliant bon-mot, humorous joke, sensible pun, keen epigram, diverting tale, pleasant fable, good conundrum, strange epitaph, &c.—There's a repast for you, ladies, if you have but an appetite for it!

*The Trial of Francis Soulés, for the Murder of Mr. John Fenton, May 16, 1778. 8vo. 6d. Crowder.*

The fate of the unfortunate person, whose trial is here related, remains to be determined in the court of King's-Bench; the jury having been directed to bring in their verdict special.



# I N D E X.

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| <p style="text-align: center;">A.</p> <p><b>ABRIDGMENT</b> of the life and reign of Henry IV. of France, p. 400</p> <p><i>Academic trifles</i>, 168</p> <p><i>Account</i> of remarkable ruins in the Highlands, 20</p> <p>—— of the epidemic sore throat, 79</p> <p>—— (authentic) of the part taken by the earl of Chatham, in a transaction which passed in the year 1778, 315</p> <p>—— (another) of the part taken by the earl of Chatham, &amp;c. 378</p> <p><i>Adamthwaite's</i> sermon on the nature and principles of society, 156</p> <p><i>Address</i> to the rulers of the state, 151</p> <p>—— to the independent part of the people of England, on libels, 236</p> <p>—— to both houses of parliament respecting the present state of public affairs, 314</p> <p>—— to the proprietors of East India stock, 396</p> <p><i>Adultery</i>, the court of, 153</p> <p>——, supplement to the court of, 397</p> <p><i>Akbar</i>, translation of the institutes of the emperor, 115</p> <p><i>America</i> lost, a poem, 72</p> <p>——, considerations on the mode and forms of a treaty of peace with, 395</p> <p>——, letter to the people of, 471</p> <p><i>American</i> fugitive, the, 300</p> <p><i>Anatomical</i> dialogues, 134</p> <p><i>Annette</i> and Lubin, an opera, 474</p> <p><i>Answer</i> (an) to 'An inquiry into facts, and observations thereon,' 240</p> <p><i>Anticipation</i>, 394</p> <p><i>Apology</i> for the Baptists, 238</p> <p><i>Appeal</i> (an) to reason and justice, &amp;c. 152</p> <p><i>Apthorpe's</i> (Dr.) sermon on the Liturgy of the church of England, 74</p> <p><i>Arthur</i> (prince), a romance, 461</p> <p><i>Athelgiva</i>, a legendary tale, 68</p> <p><i>Attempt</i> to reform the times, 156</p> <p><i>d'Auteroche's</i> voyage to California, 263</p> <p><i>Authentic</i> memoirs of the late earl of Chatham, 73</p> <p style="text-align: left;">VOL. XLVI. Dec. 1778.</p> | <p style="text-align: center;">B.</p> <p><i>Ayin Akbary</i>, on the institutes of the emperor Akbar, 115</p> <p><i>Backhouse's</i> dissertation on the value of life-annuities, 128</p> <p><i>Baptists</i>, apology for the, 238</p> <p><i>Barker</i> (sir Robert), letter to, 78</p> <p><i>Bateman's</i> treatise on agistment tithe, 234</p> <p><i>Bath</i>, description of the hot-bath there, 380</p> <p>—— guide, the new prose, 318</p> <p><i>Bayly's</i> (Dr.) two sermons before the university of Oxford, Oct. 12, 1777, 155</p> <p><i>Beaumé's</i> manual of chemistry, 93</p> <p><i>Beauties</i> of the poets, 153</p> <p>—— of Flora displayed, 160</p> <p><i>Bellona</i>, or the Genius of Britain, 71</p> <p><i>Bentham's</i> view of the hard-labour bill, 138</p> <p><i>Bible</i>, history of the, in verse, 296</p> <p><i>Book</i> of prayers for private use, 475</p> <p><i>Book-keeping</i> familiarised, 125</p> <p><i>Booth's</i> apology for the Baptists, 238</p> <p><i>Boulter</i> (Thomas), trial of, 400</p> <p><i>Breed</i> and management of horses, considerations on the, 239</p> <p><i>Brooke</i> (Henry), collection of pieces published by, 67</p> <p><i>Bulkley's</i> sermon on the death of the late earl of Chatham, 77</p> <p><i>Burgoyne's</i> (general) speeches, substance of, 72</p> <p><i>Burn's</i> and Nicholson's history and antiquities of Westmorland and Cumberland, 10</p> <p style="text-align: center;">C.</p> <p><i>Caldwell</i> (James), trial of, 400</p> <p><i>Caledonian</i> bards, works of the, 42</p> <p><i>California</i>, voyage to, 263</p> <p><i>Camoëns' Lusiad</i>, translation of, 62</p> <p><i>Camp</i> guide (the), 68</p> <p><i>Canaan</i>, the conquest of, 398</p> <p><i>Captain</i> Parolles at Minden, 236</p> <p><i>Cardigan</i> (sir Charles), letter to, 186</p> <p><i>Carver's</i> travels through North America, 441</p> <p><i>Case</i> of a hydrophobia, 397</p> <p><i>Cases</i>, medical, 54</p> <p>—— and observations on the hydrophobia, 474</p> <p><i>Castrametation</i>, essay on, 240</p> <p><i>Characters</i> by lord Chesterfield, contrasted, 158</p> <p style="text-align: right;">Chatham's</p> |
|--|---|

# I N D E X.

<i>Chatham</i> , memoirs of the earl of,	73	D.	
———, sermon on the death of,	77	<i>Dangers</i> and disadvantages to the public and East India Company from that company's building and navigating their own ships,	80
———, epistle to the king,	153	<i>Davis's</i> examination of Gibbon's 'History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire,'	51
——— account of the part taken by the earl of, in a transaction which passed in 1778,	315	<i>Description</i> of the hot bath, at Bath,	80
<i>Chatterton's</i> miscellanies,	107	<i>Devil's</i> wedding, the	68
<i>Chemistry</i> , a manual of,	93	<i>Dialogue</i> on religious bigotry,	478
<i>Chests</i> , the game of,	251	<i>Dialogues</i> , anatomical,	134
<i>Chesterfield's</i> (earl of) miscellaneous works, vol. III.	200	<i>Diary</i> , sentimental,	400
<i>Chronicle</i> of England, vol. II.	178	<i>Dictionary</i> , a military,	193
<i>Chronological</i> abridgment of the life and reign of Henry IV. of France,	400	———, the sportsman's,	211
——— of the Bible,	474	——— of the Bible,	474
<i>Church</i> (the) an engine of the state, a sermon,	149	<i>Digest</i> of the general highway and turnpike laws,	233
<i>Clergyman</i> , memoirs of a,	318	<i>Directory</i> , the London,	400
<i>Cleveland</i> (Lucy), history of,	297	<i>Discipline</i> of the light-horse,	188
<i>Coal</i> and culm, considerations on,	80	<i>Discovery</i> (the), a poem,	472
<i>Collection</i> of pieces published by Henry Brooke, esq.	67	<i>Discourse</i> (a), delivered in one of the Catholic chapels,	157
<i>Commentaries</i> , medical and philosophical,	334	<i>Discourses</i> on the four gospels,	97
<i>Conciliation</i> , a poem,	236	——— (Dr. Horne's) on several subjects and occasions,	360
<i>Conquest</i> of Canaan,	398	<i>Dissertation</i> on the value of life annuities,	128
<i>Considerations</i> on the nature, quality, and distinctions of coal and culm,	61	——— on the folclande and boclande of the Saxons,	231
——— on the breed and management of horses,	239	——— on the languages, &c. of eastern nations,	418
——— on the mode and forms of a treaty of peace with America,	395	<i>Doctrine</i> of philosophical necessity illustrated,	172
——— on the benefits to be derived from the East India's company building and navigating their own ships,	ibid.	<i>Douglas's</i> history of the cases of controverted elections, vol. III. and IV.	181
<i>Constitutional</i> criterion (the),	236	<i>Duncan's</i> (Dr.) medical cases,	54
<i>Controverted</i> elections, history of cases of, vol. III. and IV.	181	<i>Dunning</i> , esq. (John), letter to,	27
<i>Cornwallis's</i> (dean) sermon before the sons of the clergy,	74	<i>Duty</i> (the) and interest of every private person, at the present juncture,	74
<i>Costard's</i> letter to N. B. Halhead, esq. on his preface to the 'Code of Gentoo laws,'	372	E.	
<i>Cough</i> (recent catarrhus) cure for,	412	<i>Earth</i> , inquiry into the original state of,	367
<i>Court</i> of adultery, the, 153. Supplement to,	397	<i>Ecclesiastical</i> gallantry,	315
<i>Criterion</i> , the constitutional,	236	<i>Eclogues</i> , moral,	473
<i>Crompton</i> (Joshua) memoirs of,	400	<i>Elegiac</i> poem on the death of Mr. Toplady,	397
<i>Culm</i> (coal and), considerations on,	61	<i>Elegy</i> on the death of Mr. Toplady,	398
<i>Cure</i> (a new) for the spleen	400	<i>Elements</i> of general history,	347
<i>Cytnos</i> , temple of,	158	<i>England</i> , chronicle of, vol. II.	178
		———'s glory, a poem,	236
		<i>English</i> humanity no paradox,	79
		——— grammar, a practical,	318
		Ex-	

# I N D E X.

<i>Enquiries</i> (historical and practical) on the section of the symphysis of the pubes,	293	<i>Friendship</i> in a nunnery,	306
<i>Enquiry</i> (an) into the manners of the present age,	80	G.	
— into the scripture account of the use and intent of the death of Christ,	154	<i>Gallantry</i> , ecclesiastical,	315
— into the causes of the internal restlessness and disorder in man,	317	<i>General</i> history, elements of,	347
<i>Enraptur'd swain</i> (the),	316	<i>Genius</i> of Britain (the),	71
<i>Envy</i> , a poem,	154	<i>Germaine</i> (lord Geo.) letter to,	73
<i>Epistle</i> from the earl of Chatham to the king,	153	<i>Gipsies</i> (the), a comic opera,	398
— (an) to W—m e—l of M—f—,	ibid.	<i>Glance</i> (a) at the times,	72
—, a poetical, supplicating, modest, &c. to the Reviewers, ibid.		<i>Glasse's</i> (Dr.) sermon before the three choirs at Gloucester,	313
— (poetical) to an eminent painter,	205	<i>Gospels</i> , discourses on the four,	97
<i>Essay</i> (an) on liberty,	151	—, harmony of the,	257
— on the immateriality and immortality of the soul,	222	<i>Gospel-shop</i> , a comedy,	154
— on castrametation,	240	<i>Grammatical</i> institutes,	318
— on divided commons,	480	<i>Great Britain</i> , ode to the warlike genius of,	70
<i>Evelina</i> ; or, a young lady's entrance into the world,	202	—, undecieved in the conduct of government and views of America,	394
<i>Evelyn's Terra</i> , Hunter's edition of,	130	—, tour through,	454
<i>Every</i> merchant not his own ship-builder,	396	<i>Gurdon's</i> sketch of distinguishing graces,	477
<i>Euripides</i> quæ extant omnia,	193	H.	
<i>Examination</i> of the 15th and 16th chapters of Gibbon's 'History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire,'	51	<i>Hale's</i> sonorum doctrina, &c.	438
<i>Example</i> (the), a novel,	297	<i>Hampe's</i> (Dr.) experimental system of metallurgy,	479
<i>Excellence</i> of the liturgy of the church of England, a sermon,	74	<i>Hard</i> labour bill, view of the,	138
<i>Eyre's</i> (Dr.) earnest attempt to reform the times,	156	<i>Harmony</i> of the gospels,	257
F.		—, sermon on the beneficial effects of,	313
<i>Favourite</i> (the),	315	<i>Hasted's</i> history and survey of Kent,	401
<i>Fellows's</i> history of the Bible,	296	<i>Haward's</i> word at parting,	479
— elegiac poem on the death of Mr. Toplady,	397	<i>Haunts</i> of Shakespeare,	236
<i>Female</i> jester,	480	<i>Henry's</i> (Dr.) letter to the authors of the Critical Review,	320
<i>Flora</i> Anglica, editio altera,	48	<i>Hill's</i> gospel shop, a comedy,	154
<i>Formation</i> of the earth, inquiry into,	367	<i>Hinde's</i> (capt.) discipline of the light-horse,	188
<i>Forster's</i> (Dr.) observations, made, during a voyage round the world,	37	<i>History</i> and antiquities of Westmorland and Cumberland,	10
— (Mr Geo.) letter to the earl of Sandwich,	318	— (general) of Ireland,	33
<i>Fothergill's</i> (Dr.) case of a hydrophobia,	397	— of the cases of controverted elections, vol. III. and IV.	181
		— of the military transactions in Indostan, vol. II.	241, 337
		— of Lucy Cleveland,	297
		— of the Bible, in verse,	296
		— and survey of Kent,	401
		<i>Horne's</i> letter to John Dunning, esq.	27
		— (Dr. Geo.) discourses on several subjects,	360
		— (Tho.) visitation sermon at Hereford,	476
		<i>Horses</i> , considerations on the breed and management of,	239
		I i 2	<i>Horsley's</i>

# I N D E X.

- Horsley's* (Dr.) sermon on providence and free agency, 75  
*Hot-bath*, description of the, 80  
*Hudsoni* Flora Anglica, editio altera, 48  
*Hunter's* (Dr. A.) edition of Evelyn's Terra, 130  
*Hutchinson's* (W.) view of Northumberland, 81  
 ——— (W.) treatise on practical workmanship, 290  
*Hydrophobia*, case of a, 397  
 I.  
*Janes's* beauties of the poets, 153  
*Jebbison's* (Dr.) sermon on the fast-days, 77  
*Jester*, the female, 480  
*Illustrium virorum* elogia sepulchralia, 280  
*Imitationes* has parvulas, Anglicè partim, partim Latine redditas, 237  
*Immateriality* and immortality of the soul, essay on, 222  
*Imposture*, the temple of, 69  
*Inquiry* (an) into several important truths, 73  
 ——— into the nature and genuine laws of poetry, 120  
 ——— into the original state and formation of the earth, 367  
*Insanity*, methods of cure in some cases of, 79  
*Institutes* of the emperor Akbar, 115  
 ——— grammatical, 318  
*Invasion* (the), a farce, 473  
*Jones's* two sermons on the fear of God, &c., 156  
*Ireland*, general history of, 33  
*Isaiah*, a new translation, by Dr. Lowth, bishop of London, 321, 418  
*Junto* (the) a state farce, 472  
*Jure* (de) colonias inter & Metropolen apud Priscos, 395  
 K.  
*Keller's* pocket of prose and verse, 456  
*Kent* surveyed and illustrated, 253  
 —, history, and survey of, 401  
*Keppel* (admiral), letter to, 472  
 L.  
*Lady* of the manor, an opera, 473  
*Law's* (Dr.) visitation sermon, 155  
*Lessons* for children from two to three years years old, 160  
 ——— for children of three years old, ibid.  
*Letter* to John Dunning, esq. 27.  
 To sir Geo. Saville, bart, 72. (A serious) to the public on a late transaction between lord North and the duke of Gordon, 73. To lord Geo. Germaine, ibid. To sir Rob. Barker, upon inoculation, 78. To the rev. Theophilus Lindsey, 158. To sir Harbord Harbord, bart. 240. To the earl of Sandwich, 318. To the authors of the Critical Review, 320. To Nat. Brassefey Halhead, 372. To the people of America, 471. To admiral Keppel, 472. Of solemn counsel to a person in a declining state of health, 475. To the guardians of the poor at Bury St. Edmund's, 480  
*Letters*, republican, 151  
 ——— in answer to Dr. Price's two pamphlets, ibid.  
 ——— from lord Rivers to sir Charles Cardigan, 186  
 ——— of Momus from Margate, 240  
 ——— from Henrietta to Morvina, 267  
*Lettsom's* (Dr.) letter to sir Robert Barker and George Stacpoole, esq. upon general inoculation, 78  
*Levison's* (Dr.) account of the epidemical sore throat, 79  
*Libels*, an interesting address on, 236  
*Liberty*, essay on, ibid.  
*Light* of nature pursued, 354  
*Light horse*, discipline of the, 188  
*Lindsey's* sermon at opening of the New-chapel at Essex-street, 157  
*List* of the officers of the militia, 400  
*Lobo's* nomenclature, 240  
*Lochee's* essay on castrametation, ib.  
*London* directory, 400  
*Lowth's* (bp.) translation of Isaiah, 321, 418  
*Lucas's* visit from the shades, 68  
*Lusiad* (the), second edition, 62  
 M.  
*Macbean's* dictionary of the Bible, 474  
*Manners* of the present age, enquiry into the, 80  
*Manual* of chemistry, 93  
*Martin's* conquest of Canaan, 398  
*Materialism* philosophically considered, 237  
*Mathematical* principles of natural philosophy, by sir I. Newton, 274  
*Medical* cases, 54

# I N D E X.

- Medical* and philosophical commentaries, 334  
*Memoir* of Mr. Toplady, 399  
*Memoirs* of the earl of Chatham, 73  
 — of a clergyman, 318  
 — of Joshua Crompton, 400  
*Metallurgy*, system of, 479  
*Methods* of cure of insanity, &c. 79  
*Mickle's* translation of the *Lusiad* of Camoëns, second edition, 62  
*Military* dictionary, 193  
 — course for the government of a battallon, 284  
*Militia* officers, list of, 400  
*Milloy's* elements of general history, 347  
*Milne's* (Dr.) sermon for the benefit of the humane society, 476  
*Minority*, the voice of the, 153  
*Miscellaneous* state papers, from 1501 to 1726, 1  
 — works of the earl of Chesterfield, vol. iii. 200  
*Miscellanies* in prose and verse, 107, 317  
*Monody* on the death of Mr. Linley, 316  
*Montesquieu*, works of, 79  
*Moral* eclogues, 473  
*Mudge's* cure for a recent catarrhus cough, 412  
*Musgrave's* (Dr.) edition of Euripides, 198  
 N.  
*Narcissus*, or the young man's mirror, 317  
*Narrative* of the transactions of the fleet under lord Howe, 471  
 — of the prosecution against the rev. Edw. Evanson, 479  
*Natural* philosophy, mathematical principles of, 274  
*Nature* (light of) pursued, 354  
*Necessity* (philosophical), doctrine of, illustrated, 172  
*Nicolson's* and *Burn's* history and antiquities of Westmorland and Cumberland, 10  
*Nomenclature*, Lobo's, 240  
 O.  
*Observations* made during a voyage round the world, 37  
 — on the scheme for the maintenance of the poor, 72  
 — on the sore throat and fever that raged in Scotland, 78  
*Ode* to the warlike genius of Great Britain, 70  
*Ode* addressed to the Scotch junto, 315  
*Odes* of Pindar, in English verse, 59  
*O'Halloran's* history of Ireland, 33  
*Ossory's* (bishop of) harmony of the gospels, 257  
*Oxford's* (bishop of) sermon before the governors of the Radcliffe infirmary, 313  
 P.  
*Parish* clerk's pocket companion, 477  
*Patriot* vision, the, 69  
*Peace*, a poem, 316  
*Pearce's* haunts of Shakespeare, 236  
*Perfect's* method of cure in cases of insanity, 79  
*Phillipott's* Kent surveyed and illustrated, 253  
*Physic*, strictures on the practice of, 46  
*Pindar's* odes, in English verse, 59  
*Plan* of internal defence, 395  
*Poems*, miscellaneous, 209  
*Pocket* of prose and verse, 456  
*Poetical* epistle to an eminent painter, 205  
*Poetry*, inquiry into the nature and genuine laws of, 120  
*Popery* a perfect contrast to the religion of Christ, 313  
 — vindicated, 314  
*Present* state of the West Indies, 450  
*Priestley's* (Dr.) doctrine of philosophical necessity illustrated, 172  
*Prince* Arthur, a romance, 461  
*Prose* (the new) Bath guide 318  
*Providence* and free agency, sermon on, 75  
 R.  
*Rayner's* readings on statutes, 232  
*Reader's* remarks on the revelations of St. John, 375  
*Remarks* on the 'Considerations on the nature, &c. of coal and culm, 80  
 — (a few) on the 'History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire,' 161  
 — on the 'History of the colonization of the free states of antiquity,' 272  
*Republican* letters, 151  
*Richardson's* dissertation on the languages, &c. of eastern nations, 428  
*Rose* and Colin, a comic opera, 398  
 S.  
*Saunders's* (Dr.) observation on the sore throat and fever that raged in Scotland in 1777, 78  
*Schoolmistress* for the poor, 475  
*Scott's*

# I N D E X.

- Scott's digest of the general highway and turnpike laws,* 233  
*Seamanship*, treatise on practical, 290  
*Search's light of nature pursued*, 354  
*Seducers* (the), a poem, 68  
*Sentimental diary*, 400  
*Serious* (a) letter to the public on a late transaction between lord North and the duke of Gordon, 73  
*Times's military course for the government of a battalion, &c.* 284  
*Sketch of the history of two acts of the Irish parliament to prevent the farther growth of popery,* 236  
 — of distinguishing graces, 477  
*Sonorum doctrina rationalis & experimentalis, &c.* 438  
*Sore throat* (epidemical) account of the, 79  
*Soulé's* (Francis), trial of, 480  
*Spearman's supplement to the works of John Hutchinson, esq.* 159  
*Speculum Britannicum,* 151  
*Spleen*, a new cure for the, 400  
*Sportman's* (the) dictionary, 211  
*State papers*, miscellaneous, 1  
*Stevenson's letters to Dr. Price,* 151  
*Stockdale's inquiry into the nature and laws of poetry,* 120  
 — — — — — miscellanies, in prose and verse, 317  
*Strictures on the present practice of physic,* 46  
 — — — — — an 'Considerations on the benefits to be derived from the East India company's building and navigating their own ships,' 395  
*Strutt's chronicle of England*, vol. II. 178  
*Substance of general Burgoyne's speeches,* 72  
*Supplement to the 'Court of adultery,'* 397  
*Swoain*, the enraptur'd, 316  
*Swinden's beauties of Flora displayed,* 160  
*Symonds's* (Dr.) remarks on the 'History of colonization of the free states of antiquity,' 272  
*Symphysis of the pubes*, enquiries on the section of the, 293
- T.
- Taylor's* (bp.) judgment on articles and forms of confession, 477  
*Temple of imposture*, the, 69  
 — — — of Cythnos, 158  
*Thesaurus medicus*, tom I. 239  
*Thicknesse's year's journey through France, &c.* 400  
*Thorp's translation of sir I. Newton's mathematical principles of natural philosophy,* 274  
*Thoughts on tithes,* 235  
*Toplady* (Mr.) elegiac poem on the death of, 397—Elegy on the death of, 398—Memoir of the life and death of, 399  
*Tour through Great Britain,* 452  
*Townson's discourses on the gospels,* 79  
*Travels through North America,* 441  
*Treatise on agistment tithe,* 234  
 — — — on practical seamanship, 290  
*Translation* (a new) of Isaiah, 321, 418  
*Trial of Boulter and Caldwell,* 400  
 — — — of Mr. Soulé's, 480  
*True and lawful matrimony,* 80  
*Tucker's light of nature pursued,* 354
- V.
- Vaughan's* (Dr.) cases and observations on the hydrophobia, 474  
*Venn's sermon against popery,* 312  
*Vere's philosophical and moral enquiry into the causes of the internal restlessness and disorder in man,* 317  
*Vida's game of chess,* 251  
*View* (a short) of the tenets of Trinitheists, &c. 78  
 — — — of Northumberland, 81  
 — — — of the hard labour bill, 138  
*Vision*, the patriot, 69  
*Visit from the shades,* 68  
*Voice of the minority,* 153
- W.
- Warley*, a satire, part I. and II. 472  
*Wedding*, the devil's, 68  
*West Indies*, present state of, 450  
*Whitehead's materialism philosophically considered,* 337  
*Whitehurst's inquiry into the original state and formation of the earth,* 367  
*Williams's account of ruins in the Highlands, &c.* 20  
*Windsor*, an ode, 315  
*Wives revenged*, an opera, 398  
*Wood's description of the hot-bath,* 80  
 — — — book-keeping familiarized, 125  
 — — — grammatical institutes, 318  
*Word at parting,* 479  
*Works of the Caledonian bards*, vol. I. 42  
 — — — of M. de Montesquieu, 79  
 — — — of the earl of Chesterfield, vol. III. 200

Wright's sermon at the ordination  
of the rev. Isaac Smith, 237

Y.  
Year's journey through France, &c.  
400

# INDEX TO THE FOREIGN ARTICLES.

**ALCUINI** opera, 306  
*Analeſta critica in ſcriptores  
veteres Gr. & Lat.* 227  
*Animalium* (de) ex mephitibus et  
noxiiis halitibus interitu ejusque  
propioribus cauſis libri tres, 309  
*Atlas celeſte de Flamſteed*, 370  
*Attempt* (an) in parallel biography,  
(German), 230  
*Biblioſea*, oſſia l'arte di compor li-  
bri, ibid.  
*Bifarrein*, 231  
*Brieven over het hooglied, &c.* 470  
*Brugman's magnetiſmus* 310  
*Cahiers des obſervations aſtrono-  
miques faites à l'obſervatoire roy-  
al de Vilna, en 1773*, 146  
*Conamen Mappæ generalis medica-  
mentorum ſimplicium, &c.* 470  
*Corréſpondence d'un jeune militaire*,  
312  
*Davidis aliorumque poetarum Heb.  
carminum lib. I.* 466  
*Del gius naturale, divino ricauato,  
ed illuſtrato da una nuova analiſi  
dell' uomo, &c.* 310  
*Delectus diſſertationum medicarum  
Argentoratenuſium*, 148  
*Description d'une machine propre à  
détruire les fourmis, &c.* (French  
and German), 149  
*Demi-dramas*, par M. de St. Marc,  
311  
*Deſcrizione degli ſtromenti armoni-  
ci d' ogni genere*, 229  
*Diſcorſo ſopra la pittura, del cav.  
conte Giovio, &c.* 230  
*Diſcours choiſis ſur divers ſujets de  
religion & de littérature*, 307  
*Diſſertatione idroſtatica ſopre il con-  
corſo de' fiumi*, 148  
*Diſſertazione epistoſolare del ſig. ab.  
G. B. Paſſeri, ſopra un' antica  
ſtatuetta di marmo trovata nel  
diſtretto di Perugia*, 229  
*Doſtrina civilis analyſis philoſophica*,  
145  
*Eloquence*, poëme didactique, 310  
*Enumeratio numiſmatum, &c.* 465  
*Effai ſur le mineralogie du bailliage  
d'Orgelet*, ibid.  
— chronologique, &c. ſur l'iſle  
de Corſe, 393

*Effai ſur le bonheur*, 464  
— ſur les lieux & les dangers des  
ſepultures, 467  
*Effay on the legiſlative prudence of  
preventing crimes* (German), 469  
*Evidence* (on the) of the proofs of  
the truth of the Chriſtian religion  
(German), 147  
*Expoſitio brevis locorum SS. ad ori-  
entem ſeſe referentium*, 311  
*Fundamenta politicæ medicæ* 148  
*Fundamental laws of nature in the  
birth, life, and death of mankind*  
(German), 309  
*Genealogia Jeſu*, 469  
*Gerardi Haſſelti ampulla Iſidis A-  
gyptia, &c.* 470  
*German* (a) tranſlation of Mudge's  
'Enquiry into the inoculation of  
the ſmall-pox,' 65  
*Habacuc*, vates olim Hebræus, im-  
primis ipſius hymnus, denuo il-  
luſtratus, 312  
*Heroiſme de l'amitié*, 228  
*Hetzel's hiſtory of the Hebrew lan-  
guage and literature* (German),  
142  
*Hiſtoire la republique Romaine dans  
le cours du VII. ſiècle, par Salluſt*,  
306  
— générale d'Hongrie, 393  
*Hiſtoria religionis & eccleſiæ Chriſ-  
tianæ*, 390  
— matheſeos in Bohemia & Mo-  
ravia cultæ, ibid.  
— medica thermarum Patavina-  
rum, 392  
*Homeri Ilias Latinis verſibus expreſ-  
ſa*, 230  
— *Odyſſea*, Latinis verſibus ex-  
preſſa, 471  
*l'Iliade di Omero, tradotta del Græco*,  
ibid.  
*Inſtituzioni de meccanica, d'idroſtati-  
ca, &c.* 393  
*Inſtruction ſur la manière de deſin-  
ſecter les cuirs des beſtiaux morts  
de l'épizootie, &c.* 66  
*Iſtoria del governo d'Inghilterra, &c.*  
147  
*Jus eccleſiaſticum vetus* (Iſlandic and  
Latin), 225  
*Lettera del ſig. conte abbaſe G. Ro-  
berti*,

# I N D E X.

<i>Berti</i> , al fig. cav. conte Giovio, &c.	230	<i>Pomona</i> Franconica,	312
<i>Lettere</i> di un Italiano ad un Parigi- gino,	393	<i>Potestate</i> (de) ecclesiastica & tempo- rali,	469
— sur l'aria inflammabile na- tiva delle paludi,	ibid.	<i>Prælogi</i> in Terentium,	ibid.
<i>Lettered</i> d'amour & d'affaires, écri- tes par Catherine comtesse de Sal- mour,	65	<i>Qualità</i> (sopra la) dagli effluvi de baco de seta,	392
— de M. Alexandre Volta, &c.	312	<i>Recherches</i> sur la preparative que les Romains donnoient à la chaux dont ils se servoient pour leurs constructions, &c.	310
<i>Life</i> (the) of Sebastian Castellio (German),	64	— & considerations sur la po- pulation de la France,	312
<i>Monita</i> medico-politica ad non pau- cos eosque potissimum habitatores ruris,	311	<i>Recueil</i> de dissertations historiques & politiques avec des nouvelles asser- tions sur la vegetation spontanée des coquilles du chateau des places,	66
<i>Moser's</i> remarks on the extinction of the electoral house of Bavaria (German),	66	<i>Relazione</i> del fulmine caduto nell conduttore della publica specola di Padova,	312
<i>Monument</i> élevé à la gloire Pierre le Grand,	302	<i>Religious</i> doctrine of the orthodox Mennonites (German),	470
<i>Musei</i> Capitolini antiquæ inscriptio- nes, &c.	219	<i>Roland</i> Furieux, traduction nouvelle, par M. Cavaillon,	230
<i>Museum</i> virorum Lucernatum, &c.	311	<i>Sagan</i> af Gunlaugi Ormstungu og thaild Rafni,	126
<i>Notices</i> des hommes la plus célèbres de la faculté de médecine en l'uni- versité de Paris,	227	<i>Saggio</i> e memoria de la cura prefer- vativa da l'idrophobia, &c.	470
<i>Nouvelle</i> Description du Cap de Bonne Esperance,	464	<i>Salubritate</i> (de) & morbis Hunga- riæ schediafma,	392
<i>Nuova</i> esposizione della vera strut- tura del cervello umano,	392	<i>Schraderi</i> (Jo.) liber emendationum,	309
<i>Observaciones</i> astronomichas hechas en Cadiz, &c.	471	<i>Samleri</i> paraphrasis II. Epistolæ ad Corinthios,	66
<i>Observationes</i> anatomico pathologi- cæ,	311	<i>Something</i> on Mos. xlix. 10. and Matth. v. 31, 32, (German),	147
<i>Observationum</i> medicarum de phthisi in col. præcipue clinico collectarum decuria,	228	<i>Specimen</i> Zoologiæ geographicæ,	388
<i>Observations</i> sur les epizoties conta- gieuses,	393	— hierarchiæ Hungariæ,	391
<i>Om</i> silfwers arlige farande til China (Swedish),	389	<i>Storia</i> polemica del celibato sacro, — della squinancia cancerosa epidemica e contagiosa,	470
<i>Opusculæ</i> politiques & moraux,	66	<i>Tartuffe</i> (le) epistolaire démaqué,	312
<i>Oratio</i> de re militare,	305	<i>Théâtre</i> de M. Bret,	311
<i>Origine</i> (della) dei progressi nell' arte obstetricia,	66	<i>Théorie</i> (la) du chirurgien,	67
<i>Observazioni</i> sopra diversi pezzi del viaggio in Dalmatia del abbate Portis,	385	<i>Traité</i> sur l'art des sièges & les ma- chines des anciennes,	226
<i>Parfait</i> (le) boulanger,	312	<i>Thermæ</i> Varadienses examini phy- sico & medico subjectæ,	391
<i>Pharmacopœa</i> Edinburgensis. Ad- ditamentis aucta ab Ern. Got. J. Baldinger,	148	<i>Trattato</i> de' canali navigabili,	392
— Suecica,	ibid.	<i>Tubera</i> terræ, carmen,	ibid.
<i>Polish</i> translation of professor Gel- leri's moral lectures,	ibid.	<i>Udfoerlig</i> Afhandling om Bier, og en for Dannemark og Norge nytting Bie-avles anlæg (Danish),	390
		<i>Vindication</i> of baron Goerz (Ger- many),	380

END OF THE FORTY-SIXTH VOLUME

